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Page 22. l. 17. from bott. after 'was,' dele '*therefore*'.
36. l. 14. from bott. for 'discover,' r. *discovery*.
263. l. 9. for 'Zuccei..,' r. *Lucceius*.
257. l. 6. from bott. put a comma after '*Tetrodon*'.
283. l. 6. for 'as,' r. *Bon*.

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THE MONTHLY REVIEW,

For MAY, 1805.

ART. I. *The Works, Theological and Miscellaneous, including some Pieces not before printed, of Francis Blackburne, M.A.*, late Rector of Richmond, and Archdeacon of Cleveland; with some Account of the Life and Writings of the Author, by himself, completed by his Son Francis Blackburne, LL.B.; and illustrated by an Appendix of Original Papers. 7 Vols. 8vo. 2l. 12s. 6d. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1804.

THE history and works of the able and learned Archdeacon Blackburne recall to memory various circumstances which once engaged a large share of public attention, but which now exist only as matters of record. His active life carries us back to more than the distance of half a century; and since that period, the aspect of this country, as well as the face of the world in general, has undergone very material changes. Amid these vicissitudes, it was not to be expected that the human mind should remain stationary; and accordingly we find great revolutions to have taken place in the sentiments and pursuits of the several classes of society: an observation which does not apply with more force to any order of men, than to those who are engaged in abstract inquiries, and particularly to theologians.

At the commencement of Mr. Blackburne's professional career, and for a considerable time afterward, a spirit of inquiry, a latitudinarian turn, a catholic temper, and a desire of moderate reformation, were by no means rare among the established clergy. The Anti-Athanasian leaders had left behind them many avowed followers, and a still greater number of silent disciples. Many dignitaries, and even some prelates, acknowleged a predilection for more free opinions than the church allowed, and intimated wishes to have the terms of conformity rendered less rigid, the creeds less scholastic, and the service more scriptural. Among those who cherished this disposition, no one was more distinguished for zeal, industry, and acuteness, than Archdeacon Blackburne; his labours were extensive; and he was indefatigable in pleading the cause of ecclesiastical re-

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form, though he never seems to have been sanguine in his hopes of success, and latterly appears scarcely to have entertained any such expectations. Few works display more ability and ingenuity than that to which the Archdeacon principally owes his celebrity, we mean *the Confessional*; a performance which perhaps admits not of a satisfactory answer, and which certainly never yet received one: but though the fact unquestionably be so, its enemies now enjoy the satisfaction of seeing that once formidable production lying totally neglected, and the age completely indisposed to lend any countenance to its principles.

Though the author zealously contended against the comprehensive terms of rigid conformity, he never forsook the established communion; and we are told that he strongly disapproved the opposite conduct in others. Nevertheless, several of his admirers, those who had formed themselves in his school, who had adopted and followed his maxims, and some of them his nearest connections, not only relinquished their functions in the church and deserted her sacraments, but set up hostile altars, and waged open war against her; charging her with idolatry, and calling on the true believer to shun her temples, and to abjure her doctrine and worship. It is moreover stated that the parent of the new non-conformity, the forerunner of these bold seceders, was known to have entertained very different sentiments from the converts which *the Confessional* had formed; and the reader will learn with some surprize that the Apostle, at whose door is laid the schism of our times, was a moderate* Calvinist, and a believer in the divinity of our Saviour. It is probably to this wide departure of his disciples from his moderation, that we are to ascribe his total want of success, and the disregard into which his commendable labours have fallen. Had it appeared that the temperate changes first proposed would have healed differences, have embraced the enlightened part of the community, and have fixed the faith of the church, cautious and prudent men might then have favoured them, and the legislature have afforded them its countenance: but, when it became evident that the concessions first sought would tend very little to satisfy objectors, that the number and the extent of the demands were daily increasing, and that no stability was to be expected among the new reformers in the absence of all fixedness of opinion, we cannot wonder that schemes of reform fell into discredit; and that a general and fatal apathy soon prevailed with regard to them.

* See Vol. I. Appendix H. p. cxxvi.

Independ-

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Independently of all state considerations, a perpetual fluctuation in religious belief cannot prove otherwise than injurious;—a fluctuation which of late years seems to have become progressive, and to have kept pace with the cultivation of the human intellect. In the days of Elizabeth, nonconformity only complained of certain gestures and habits which the rubric required; while lately, in the person of Mr. Gilbert Wakefield, nothing less would satisfy it than the abolition of public worship altogether. The Athanasian controversy has had the effect of leading some to hold the doctrine of the simple humanity of our Saviour, and to deny his miraculous conception; and the disputes concerning the intermediate state have conducted to pure materialism. So in the schools, the overthrow of the paramount authority of the Stagirite has ended in the splendid subtleties of Berkeley, and in the extravagant scepticism of Hume. When this instability in opinion became a prominent feature of the times, when this proneness to extremes was so manifest, the natural consequence must be that men in authority should be averse from changes. While we cannot help seeing and feeling those difficulties, which must have pressed on the minds of rulers whether civil or ecclesiastical, God forbid that we should lend any sanction to the continuance of unnecessary burthens on conscience, or of any undue restraints on the understanding.—If, however, as a practical reformer, the Archdeacon has been unsuccessful, it cannot be denied that, as an asserter of civil and religious liberty,—in which character we have had frequent occasion to bear him respectful testimony,—his efforts have been made under better auspices. Though he was unable to model our national church according to his individual views, it is consolatory to think that his unremitting labours to promote piety, integrity, and the virtues of candour and mutual forbearance, have not failed to promote their desirable object.

We shall now abstract a few biographical particulars from the memoirs prefixed to this publication, and which are the composition of Mr. B.'s own pen, as far down as the year 1782: from which period they are continued by the filial care of the present editor.

The subject of this account was born at Richmond in Yorkshire, June 9, 1705; he received his education at different provincial schools; and afterward at Catherine Hall, Cambridge, where he was admitted pensioner in May 1722. He was ordained Deacon in 1728. His political principles, which were those of Locke and Hoadley, having prevented his election to a foundation fellowship in his college, he quitted Cambridge, and went to reside with a relation, a clergyman, in his

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own county; where he remained till he was presented in 1739 to the living of Richmond, his native place.

The ensuing account of a celebrated work, and of its author, must be allowed to be highly curious, whatever may be thought of the observations which accompany it:

'In the year 1749 appeared for the first time, *Free and Candid Disquisitions relating to the Church of England*; containing many sensible observations on the defects and improprieties in the liturgical forms of faith and worship of the established church, and proposals of amendments and alterations, of such passages as were liable to reasonable objections. This work was a compilation of authorities, taken from the writings of some eminent divines of the church of England, tending to shew the necessity or at least the expedience of revising our public liturgy, and of extracts of letters sent or supposed to be sent to the compiler from his correspondents in different parts of the kingdom, approving of his design, and signifying their disposition to promote and encourage it, as there should be occasion.

'The compiler, the Rev. Mr. John Jones, vicar of Alconbury near Huntingdon, was a man of a very singular character, pious and regular in his deportment, diligent in his clerical functions, and indefatigable in his studies, which were chiefly employed in promoting this scheme of reformation, conceived and digested long before his *Disquisitions* were made public, but withal affecting a mysterious secrecy even in trifles, and excessively cautious of giving offence to the higher powers.

'With Mr. Blackburne, this gentleman, on the recommendation of Dr. Edmund Law, afterwards bishop of Carlisle, held a correspondence; and to him Mr. Jones sent the greatest part of his work in manuscript, which was returned to him without so much as the correction of a single slip of the writer's pen; nor was there a single line or word in the *Free and Candid Disquisitions* written or suggested by Mr. B. notwithstanding many confident reports to the contrary.

'The truth is, Mr. B. whatever desire he might have to forward the work of ecclesiastical reformation, (which was as earnest at least as Mr. Jones's) could not possibly conform his style to the milky phraseology of the *Disquisitions*; nor could he be content to have his sentiments mollified, by the gentle qualifications of Mr. Jones's lenient pen. He was rather (perhaps too much) inclined to look upon those who had in their hands, the means and the power of reforming the errors, defects, and abuses in the government, forms of worship, faith and discipline of the established church, as guilty of a criminal negligence, from which they should have been roused by sharp and spirited expostulations. He thought it became Disquisitors, with a cause in hand of such high importance to the influence of vital christianity, rather to have boldly faced the utmost resentment of the class of men to which they addressed their work, than by meanly truckling to their arrogance, to derive upon themselves their ridicule and contempt, which all the world saw was the case of these gentle suggesters, and all the return they had for the civility of their application.'

A amphlet

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A pamphlet in defence of the above work was the first specimen of Mr. Blackburne's talents as a polemical writer.

'On the 18th of July 1750, Mr. B. was collated to the Archdeaconry of Cleveland, and on the first of August following to the Prebend of Bilton, by Dr. Matthew Hutton, then Archbishop of York, to whom he had been for some years titular chaplain*.—Such of Mr. B's. friends as judged of his disposition, by the influence that fear and hope have upon the majority of mankind, concluded, that upon this promotion he would write no more *Apologies* for such books, as the *Free and Candid Disquisitions;* and some of them were a little pleasant with him upon that subject; to whom he only answered with a cool indifference, that he had made no bargain with the Archbishop for his liberty. He had good reason indeed to believe, that his grace was not unacquainted with his sentiments; nor was he a stranger to the Archbishop's liberal notions on ecclesiastical affairs. When he first went to Bishopthorpe to be collated to the Archdeaconry, he was shewn into the chaplain's room, where the first thing he saw, was the above-mentioned *Apology* lying upon the table; and he had reason to believe, from some conversation he had with his grace before he left him, that he was suspected to be the author of it.—But there was a candor and generosity in Archbishop Hutton, rarely to be met with in men of his grace's station. Mr. B. had been warmly recommended to his grace when he was Bishop of Bangor, by his steady friend John Yorke, Esq and Mr. B. himself having lived in the neighbourhood of his grace's family at Marske, [near Richmond, E.] for more than ten years, his grace had some personal knowledge of the man, and of his general character in that neighbourhood; and the Archbishop was known to say on a certain occasion, that his own knowledge of Mr. B. had as great a share in his preferment, as the solicitation of his friends.'

Archdeacon Blackburne lived in habits of intimate friendship with Dr. Law, afterward Bishop of Carlisle; in vindication of whose opinions on the state of the soul between death and the resurrection, he drew forth his pen with great zeal, and finally produced his celebrated *Historical View* of the controversy on the same subject, which first appeared in 1765. This is certainly a very able performance; yet we own that it does not appear to us to be so satisfactory and conclusive as it is deemed by the

* "I heartily wish you joy of that accumulation of preferment which you have been so long intitled to, and which though it cannot add either to the real merit or to the interior respectableness of the person, who must dignify it, yet as it will give him frequent opportunity of indoctrinating his brethren in those parts, and may add somewhat to his authority in promoting the good work of reformation in which he is so happily engaged, I therein do and will again rejoice."

'Dr. Edmund Law, to F. B. August 1750.'

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editor. It is creditable to the industry and information of the writer, but in our judgment it leaves several topics untouched, which have materially affected the question. Though the author is here speaking of the first edition, we mean our observation to apply to the second. The disquisition of Bishop Law is more complete in its kind.

'Mr. B. had, not without some scruples, prevailed upon himself to subscribe to the XXXIX articles, in order to qualify himself to hold the Archdeaconry of Cleveland and Prebend of Bilton. His chief inducements at that time, were the reasonings of Dr. Clarke in his Introduction to the Scripture Doctrine of the Trinity, a manuscript half sheet drawn up by Dr. Edmund Law, and the liberal concession in the sixth Article of the church of England.

'Some time afterwards, upon a prospect of farther advancement to a considerable preferment, he took occasion to re-consider these several arguments, and thought they fell short of giving that satisfaction which an honest man would wish to have, when he pledges his good faith to society in so solemn a form as that prescribed by the 36th canon, enjoining subscription to the Articles and liturgical forms of the church of England.

'In this situation of mind, he set himself to examine into the rise and progress of this requisition in Protestant churches, and into the arguments brought in defence, or rather in excuse of it; the result of which was the compilation since known by the name of *The Confessional*, or *a full and free Inquiry into the right, utility*, and *success of establishing Confessions of Faith and Doctrine in Protestant Churches.*'

This work remained in manuscript for some years, and was not published till 1766.

'It appeared from the clamour that was raised against it, that grievous offence was taken at it by that part of the clergy who affect to call themselves orthodox. The indignation of Archbishop Secker was excessive. His mask of moderation fell off at once. He employed all his emissaries to find out the author, and by the industry of Rivington, and the communicative disposition of Millar, he succeeded.

'Dr. Edmund Keene was then bishop of Chester, and Mr. B's diocesan, and had expressed and indeed shewn in several instances his friendship and benevolence to Mr. B. He wrote a letter to an intimate friend of Mr. B. mentioning the resentment of the Archbishop of Canterbury, and other bishops, against the reputed author; and intimated that if the suspicion which fell upon Mr. B. was groundless, he would do well to silence the imputation, by publicly disavowing the work in print; for that every door of access to farther preferment, would otherwise be shut against him. The answer of Mr. B.'s friend was, that he had no right to ask Mr. B. any questions of that kind, and that as he himself should think it uncivil and improper to be interrogated upon such a subject, he hoped his Lordship would excuse him for declining to intermeddle, in a matter of that delicacy.

'Mr.

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'Mr. B. however, on the other hand had the consolation to find, that his book was approved and commended by several worthy persons, whose esteem he valued at a very high rate. Numbers of Letters still remain among his papers, testifying the satisfaction the writers had received in perusing *The Confessional*; among which none are written in a higher strain of panegyric, than a number from Dr. Edmund Law, since promoted to the bishoprick of Carlisle.'—

'When Dr. Warburton's book of Alliance between Church and State first appeared, the old orthodox phalanx was highly scandalized, that the author should desert the old posture of defence, and subject the church to such a humiliating dependence on the state. Dr. Rutherford led the way in an attack upon *The Confessional*, and skirmished in the old posture prescribed in the ancient system of church authority. It was found by the several answers to the Dr.'s *Charge and Vindication*, that this method would not do. Accordingly Dr. Rotherham in his *Essay on Establishments*, &c. took a different route. Warburton's system was Hobbism trimmed and decorated with various distinctions and subterfuges, which were by no means intelligible to common apprehensions, and very apt to mislead the superficial or inattentive reader, into an approbation of the more plausible parts which lay more open to their understandings.

'Dr. Balguy was the only one who seems to be fully apprised of the latent meaning of his master Warburton, to whose 'little senate' he was said to have belonged. But he entered late into the controversy; and Dr. Rotherham not having the advantage of his finesses, adopts in his Essay a system of Hobbism, almost as crude and undisguised as that of the Malmsburian philosopher, in his Leviathan.'

The resignation of Mr. Lindsey is here noticed; and we are informed that

'He had married a daughter of Mrs. Blackburne, by her former husband. The friendship between Mr. Lindsey and Mr. B. was not nearly so much cemented by this family connection, as by a similarity of sentiments, in the cause of Christian Liberty, and their aversion to ecclesiastical impositions in matters of conscience. In the warfare on these subjects they went hand in hand; and when Mr. Lindsey left Yorkshire and settled in London, Mr. B. used to say, 'he had lost his right arm.'—

'Mr. B. had his objections to the Liturgy and articles of the church of England, as well as Mr. Lindsey, and in some instances to the same passages, but differed widely from him on some particular points, which, he thought, as stated by Mr. Lindsey and his friends, could receive no countenance from scripture, but by a licentiousness of interpretation that could not be justified.

'It was not consistent with Mr. B's friendship for Mr. Lindsey to enter into a formal controversy with him on these particular points; and if that could have been got over, it was not consistent with a resolution Mr. B. had taken early in life, to have as little to do with the Trinitarian controversy as possible.

'But Dr. Priestley and some of his friends having carried the obligation to secede from the church of England, farther than Mr. B.

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thought was either sufficiently candid, charitable, or modest, and had thereby given countenance to the reproach, thrown upon many moderate and worthy men, by hot and violent conformists, for continuing to minister in the church, while they disapproved many things in her doctrine and discipline; he thought it expedient, in justice to himself and others of the same sentiments, to give some check to the crude censures, that had been passed upon them.

'And accordingly intending to publish *Four Discourses* delivered to the clergy of the Archdeaconry of Cleveland, in the years 1767, 1769, 1771 and 1773, he took that opportunity to explain himself on this subject in a Preface, as well on the behalf of the seceders, as of those whose christian principles admitted of their remaining in the church, without offering violence to their consciences.'

It is stated that the Archdeacon had made collections for a life of Luther, after the manner of that of Erasmus by Dr. Jortin: but from this undertaking he was diverted, in consequence of his assuming the task of compiling the memoirs of Thomas Hollis, Esquire. Without any disrespect to the memory of that gentleman, we must be allowed to testify our sincere regret for this disappointment. A very extensive and minute acquaintance with modern ecclesiastical history, a high veneration for his subject, and a congenial turn of mind, eminently qualified Mr. Blackburne to be the biographer of the intrepid reformer.

At this point, the Archdeacon's *own* memoir stops, and his son assumes the biographical office.

Another secession from the church, within the Archdeacon's family connections, is now to be related:

'The separation from the church of England, of his son-in-law Dr. Disney, (1782,) for whom to the moment of his death he entertained and expressed the warmest cordiality of friendship, was an event to his mind peculiarly affecting. That secession, it is true, was the natural and honourable consequence of a settled conviction, (for which the worthy seceder, with a truly christian candor, soon after delivered his reasons to the public,) that he could no longer conscientiously minister in the form of worship prescribed by the church of England. Mr. Blackburne too had his objections to the liturgy and articles of the church; but he was far from going the length of dissent which his friend Mr. Lindsey had avowed in the year 1774, and which Dr. Disney now came forward to profess.—On a subject so delicate, and on an occasion of such serious difference with a person most eminently beloved and honoured by him, we might have been at a loss for language, sufficiently proper and correct to express the feelings of Mr. B., had he not himself at the time committed to paper his motives for so differing, with the design of immediate publication; a design suspended indeed during his life from considerations of tenderness and affection, and which is now only executed in compliance with one of his latest requests before his death. The fact was, that in strict agreement with

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his early resolution not to intermedle with the Trinitarian controversy, Mr. B. had never been forward to introduce his own speculations on that topic to the public, or even among his private friends. But conscious that the world had been civil enough to impute to him and his principles the step which Mr. Lindsey had taken some years before; and now, on the secession of another near and dear relative, making no doubt but the same world would add the step then taken by him to the same account, Mr. B. did not chuse to lie under this redoubled imputation, and with a view therefore to exculpate himself, drew up the short paper referred to under the title of, *An Answer to the Question, Why are you not a Socinian?*'

The worthy Archdeacon died in the summer of 1787, in the 83d year of his age; contentedly closing, as the editor informs us, the long scene of a studious, regular, and religious life, with the sentiment of the amiable Erasmus and the benevolent Jortin, "I have had enough of every thing in this world."

As Mr. Blackburne was the most powerful and zealous among the champions of modern reformation who continued within the pale of the church, we consider it to be due to our readers to give them a farther insight into his character and sentiments, as they are represented by his son:

'He was far indeed from thinking other christian societies of the reformed faith free from defects and blemishes in their respective establishments. But it was for the *true* reputation and honor of the church of England, that he felt more particular concern. The compliments so often paid to her *purity* and *perfection* might naturally enough proceed from the flatterers of her vanity, or the expectants of her favour; too honest for the one character, and too independent for the other, he, like a real friend, instead of encouraging her to acquiesce in the panegyric of Mosheim, shewed her the way to atchieve it, and to become in *fact* as well as in *title*, the *leader and chief of all the reformed Churches.*'—

'When he was called upon to be more explicit in his demands as a reformer, he declared the distinct object of his wishes to be 'An ecclesiastical constitution calculated to comprehend all that hold the fixed and fundamental principles and points of faith, in which all serious and sincere Protestants of every denomination are unanimously agreed, and to exclude those only that hold the peculiar tenets that ESSENTIALLY distinguish all true protestantism from popery;' and that to the establishment of *this* ecclesiastical constitution the author of *The Confessional* never would be an enemy.

'Indeed he very early discovered the whole scope of his views and wishes when he desired to see his favourite definition from Bishop Kennet verified, that the Church of England might be—A SCRIPTURAL INSTITUTION *on a* LEGAL ESTABLISHMENT.

'Nor yet did he suffer this zeal and these labours in the cause of ecclesiastical reformation to intrench on the performance of his public offices as Archdeacon and Rector; but regularly devoting a great and just

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just portion of his extraordinary vigour of mind to the call of those duties, he thus spent near half a century of his life, as the faithful friend and indefatigable servant of the church of England, in every good purpose of christian edification.

'As rector of the parish of Richmond, during the first twenty years of his incumbency, he composed an original sermon every week for the instruction of his flock; nor ever failed afterwards when a fresh occasion gave him the advantage, to introduce new variety and interest into his addresses from the pulpit. Added to all this, his person was commanding and venerable, his manner firm, animated, and sincere, his voice clear and penetrating, and all his tones like himself, natural and unaffected. Gifted with these powers, speaking as he felt, and preaching what from his heart he believed, it is no wonder that his eloquence arrested, as his reasoning convinced all who heard him.

'In the discharge of his duties as Archdeacon of Cleveland, to which for fifteen of the last years of his life, the similar labour of visiting annually the three Yorkshire Deaneries in the Archdeaconry of Richmond was superadded, he never once neglected in either capacity to direct the attention of his reverend brethren to the important ends of their calling as ministers of the gospel of Christ.'—

'What lent singular weight and authority to his solemn admonitions to his parishioners, as well as to his brethren in the ministry, was the close and even rigid adherence in his own conduct to the great principles of duty which he had occasion to enforce on the minds of those whom he addressed. Uninfected with avarice or with ambition, 'that last disease of serious minds,' regulating his private life by the strict maxims of gospel morality, being the resident minister of one parish, and performing personally all the duties of his public station, he was raised above 'that main hindrance of a minister's exercising his functions with effect, to preach what he does not practise.' There were therefore few articles of obligation that it might be necessary to inculcate on his parish or on his clergy, which either timidity or shame could restrain him from pursuing in the plainest language, and with the utmost freedom and honesty of exhortation.

'With a professional character thus respectable and respected for talent, uprightness, and sedulity, as a minister and dignitary of the church of England, Mr. Blackburne was singularly intitled to stand forward as an ecclesiastical reformer: and of his high, and, in these times, perhaps unequalled fame in that honourable, however obnoxious undertaking, his personal independence built on the groundwork of a retired, temperate, and frugal life, was the basis and ornament. At an early period of his labours as a writer, he had settled it with himself, never to subscribe the XXXIX articles again for any advancement in the church. Impregnable therefore to the common influences of hope and fear, he was enabled to 'steer right onward' in the prosecution of his 'noble task.'

'The refusal indeed of the considerable preferment alluded to in the Memoirs, in the first instance, and not long after that the circumstance of a living obtained for a friend by his interest, of twice the value of his own other preferments, and tenable along with them, are not

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not the only facts which may be produced in proof how dearly he prized his integrity. The clear amount of all that he possessed, as a beneficed clergyman, never much exceeded the sum of an hundred and fifty pounds a year; twenty pounds of which, the profits of his prebend, were annually set apart for the increase of his library.

'What other and weightier considerations determined Mr. Blackburne to 'continue to minister in the church while he disapproved many things in her doctrine and discipline,' he has stated for himself in a very explicit and satisfactory manner, on an occasion which seemed to him to demand the avowal of his motives for such continuance. The mere pittance of income which he enjoyed under the national establishment, it was barely possible for an illiberal mind to allege as sufficiently accounting for his conduct in that respect. It will not hereafter be in the power of any adversary of Archdeacon Blackburne's sentiments as a reformer to mistake or misrepresent his principles on this point, when the following facts are laid before the public.

'*The Confessional* was first published early in the year 1766, and it was not long, before the secret of the author's name transpired. In the course of that year, Dr. Chandler, minister of the dissenting congregation in the Old Jewry, London, died, and several of the principal members of that society, being persuaded that the author of *The Confessional* was inclined to quit the church and join the dissenters, conveyed by a confidential person to Mr. Blackburne their wish to be informed, 'How far his inclinations went that way, and whether he would accept the situation of their minister then vacant' To this inquiry and the proposal connected with it, Mr. B. transmitted his answer through the same channel. We should have great pleasure in giving so important a document to the reader at full length, but it has hitherto eluded every search which has been made to discover it. Briefly, however, we can state thus much, that a direct negative was returned by Mr. B. to the application; and as appears from the reply, the reasons for 'his negative carried their own conviction along with them, and were very satisfactory to those who set the inquiry a foot.'

'Thus then the offer of a station of the first eminence and celebrity amongst the non-conformists, with a revenue of at least four hundred pounds a year, was rejected by a man, who at all times held out the right hand of fellowship to a Protestant dissenter, and who in the situation proposed would certainly have been relieved from some grievances in the exercise of his christian liberty, which the national establishment imposed upon him. And such then was the pure and disinterested attachment of Archdeacon Blackburne, to the church of England, such his affectionate and peculiar zeal for her best interest, and such his claim to be ranked with the most faithful of her servants, if she be desirous to become more and more what she affects to be thought, a gospel institution established by law for the edification of a Christian people.'

We have already hinted that, between the present time and a considerable proportion of that which witnessed the labours of

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of the Archdeacon, it is impossible not to perceive a most manifest difference. In the theological hemisphere, the agitations which marked the past age have subsided, and a perfect calm prevails; inquiry is at rest; conscience pours out no complaints; creeds and articles no longer perplex the candidate; and he does not feel them to be obstructions in his pursuit of those distinctions and emoluments which the establishment holds out to worth, to learning, to ambiton, and to interest. It is a curious as well as a delicate inquiry which would account for this change. Is it that our spirit is more humble, our minds more free from bias, or our apprehensions more clear; are we strangers to the doubts and difficulties which pressed on the minds of our forefathers;—or is our acquiescence the result of a weakened principle of conscience, and of a temper of mind that is more worldly; does it argue the prevalence of a covert scepticism, or is it the effect of an unbelieving turn, of which the parties themselves are scarcely conscious?—These considerations we shall leave to the contemplation of the inquisitive and the speculative: they are momentous; for they involve matters which deeply affect society.

Having noticed, as they appeared, the most important of the publications which are here collected together, we shall now make no remarks on them; referring those of our readers, who are desirous of information with respect to them, to the early volumes of our Journal, or to our *General Index*. In examining some of the tracts in this collection, it will be perceived that the candid and charitable Archdeacon speaks of our fellow-subjects the Catholics, in terms of rancour and virulence which are most inconsistent with the principles and maxims of which he was, therefore, the open and zealous advocate. It is with peculiar pleasure, therefore, that we learn from his son, that in very advanced years he relented on this point, and subdued his mind to more becoming sentiments towards this denomination of Christians. Like Cato, he retained in his old age vigour enough to overcome the illiberal antipathies with which the times had possessed his youthful mind, and which had been handed down from past generations.

To our preceding remark that Archdeacon Blackburne was the most eminent of those who, in the last century, stood up the advocates of religious reform, we add that we regard it as not his least merit that his views and aims were as sober and temperate, as his intentions were pure and upright. If his walk was not that of the more recondite learning, if his application had not been directed to those studies which consummate the theologian, if his writings afford no traces of a profound acquaintance with the original languages of the sacred text, if they shew no intimate

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mate converse with those writings which transmit to us the early forms assumed by the Christian doctrine, nor yet with those mystic schemes of philosophy which had an effect on the sentiments of the primitive fathers;—if in this higher class of the erudite he claims no place, it will be difficult to name an equal to him in the middle course in which he trod. Few writers afford proofs of so masterly an acquaintance with the ecclesiastical and civil transactions of Europe since the reformation, with the characters which flourished during this period, or with the writings by which it stands distinguished. To a decided turn for research, and to indefatigable diligence, he united great acuteness and strong powers of reasoning; he was a formidable controversialist; and withal a pious upright man, and an exemplary pastor.

We congratulate the editor on the completion, in so respectable a manner, of his laudable undertaking; he has discharged well the debt which he owed to his venerable and honoured parent; and he has conferred weighty obligations on the lovers of theological inquiry, as well as on future ecclesiastical historians, to whom these volumes will prove an invaluable treasure.

The new pieces introduced into this collection are inconsiderable, and do not require our particular specification.

ART. II. *Amadis of Gaul*, by Vasco Lobeira, from the Spanish Version of Garciordonez de Montalvo, by Robert Southey. 4 Vols. 12mo. 1l. 1s. in Boards. Longman and Rees.

IT has been the singular and varied fate of this extravagant production, to be hailed with unbounded applause, to have been laughed out of countenance by Cervantes, and, in an age in which the combats of knights and the language of incantation have ceased to charm, to be rescued from oblivion by a translator of no ordinary merit.—That any doubts should be entertained concerning the author of a work which once delighted thousands, and which still marks a striking epoch in the history of European society, may justly excite astonishment: but it is not less true that doubts, and these of a serious nature, still exist. The present translator of these volumes, indeed, boldly contends in favour of Vasco Lobeira, a Portuguese; 'who was born at Porto, fought at Aljubarrota, where he was knighted on the field of battle by king Joam of Good Memory, and died at Elvas, 1403; where he formed a *Morgado*, an entailed and unalienable estate, which afterwards descended to the Abreus of Alcarapinha.' Montalvo's Spanish version is, perhaps, the oldest extant, and is avowedly corrected from

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from the old authorities. Yet it cannot be easily denied that the story is of French invention. Nicolas de Herberay, who re-translated Montalvo's work in 1575, mentions that he saw a MS. in the Picardian dialect, from which the Spaniards had executed their versions, though with very considerable licence of addition and abridgement. The whole performance, in fact, has more a Gallic than a Portuguese complexion: but still we are left in the dark with respect to its real author, and its original form and structure.

In this as in many other cases, in which precise evidence is wanting, we may at least attempt to reconcile discordant assertions by the aid of reasonable conjecture. If we suppose, then, that Amadis de Gaul first existed in the form of a metrical romance, like those which were chaunted by the Provençal minstrels, and that this rude but popular lay suggested similar and more enlarged compositions, which Lobeira or others published as their own, we may easily account for much critical contradiction; and, at the same time, for the patched and motley aspect of the latter parts of the work. It is now generally admitted that only the first four books are genuine; and it is not improbable that their principal contents once composed a metrical rhapsody, which was afterward extended, interpolated, and new modelled from age to age. The Count de Tressan and Mr. Southey have, in our apprehension, engaged in a very nugatory inquiry, when they attempt to ascertain what portions are to be ascribed to the original author, and what to succeeding editors, or inventors.

The public, however, are certainly indebted to the English translator for limiting his labours to the first four books, and for expunging even from these many tedious and indecent passages. Enough of repetition and of incorrect morality remains, to paint the manners and spirit of a romantic and adventurous, but rude and profligate age. If the admirers of knights errant and of enchanted damsels should deem the last two epithets inapplicable, let them recollect the frequent instances which occur in the early prose romances, of adulterous and incestuous love, of the readiness with which young ladies made advances in courtship, and of the indelicate tone in which the *preux chevaliers* sometimes rejected their favours.

From the translator's preliminary essay, which bespeaks much ingenuity, and which (with the exception of a very few quaint expressions,) is well written, we shall extract his account of the manner in which he has executed his task:

'To have translated a closely printed folio would have been absurd. I have reduced it to about half its length, by abridging the words, not the story; by curtailing the dialogue, avoiding all recapitulations of the

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past action, consolidating many of those single blows which have no reference to armorial anatomy, and passing over the occasional moralizings of the Author. There is no vanity in saying, that this has improved the book, for what long work may not be improved by compression? meagre wine may be distilled into Alcohol. The minutest traits of manners have been preserved, and not an incident of the narrative omitted. I have merely reduced the picture, every part is preserved, and in the same proportions. Amadis of Gaul is valuable, not only for its intrinsic merit, as a fiction, but as a faithful representation of manners and morality; and as such, these volumes may be referred to, as confidently as the original. The edition which I have made use of is that of Seville*, 1547. The copy, for the book itself is exceedingly rare, was from the library of Mr. Heber, a gentleman whose liberality, in the disposal of a very valuable collection, leaves his friends less reason to regret, that the public libraries of England should be more difficult of access, and consequently less useful, than those of any other country in Europe.

'The Comte de Tressan in his free translation, has compleatly modernized and naturalized the character of the Romance: his book is what he designed to make it, an elegant work; but the manners and feelings of the days of Chivalry are not to be found there; they are all hidden under a varnish of French sentiment. He has scoured the old shield; the glitter which it has gained does not compensate for the loss of its sharpness, nor for the lines that are effaced.

'I should have abridged from the English translation, had it been accurate, that the character of the language might have assimilated better with the work. But the English version, which bears date as late as 1618, a century after the publication of the book in Spain, has been made from the French; every trait of manners which were foreign to D'Herberay, or obsolete in his time, is accordingly omitted, and all the foolish anachronisms and abominable obscenities of the Frenchman are retained. I kept my eye upon it as I proceeded, for the purpose of preserving its language where it was possible. A modern style would have altered the character of the book; as far as

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* 'M. le C. Gordon de Percel in his Biblioteque des Romans, says the oldest edition of Amadis is that of Seville, 1526. His work is exceedingly inaccurate. He has not mentioned that of 1547. I should conjecture, that there must have been an Edition printed at Medina del Campo.

'The story of Amadis was certainly popular before the date he has assigned for its first publication. When the Spaniards first saw Mexico, they said to each other it was like the places of enchantment which were spoken of in the book of Amadis. This was 1519. There is another passage in the excellent history of Bernal Diaz, which seems to imply that they knew the original Amadis, not the work of Montalvo; he says they compared a boastful man who did nothing in battle to Agrayes. *Llamavamosle que era otro Agrajes iio obras.* It should seem that the character of Agrayes had been modified by Montalvo. Yet, could a Manuscript story have been so commonly known as to be the talk of the soldiery?'

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was in my power I have avoided that fault, not by intermixing obsolete words, but by rendering the original structure of sentences as literally as was convenient, and by rejecting modern phraseology and forms of period. It cannot be supposed that I have uniformly succeeded in this attempt: the old wine must taste of the new cask.

'The names which have a meaning in the original have not been translated. I have used Beltenebros instead of the Beautiful Darkling or the Fair Forlorn; Florestan instead of Forester; El Patin instead of the Emperor Gosling; as we speak of Barbarossa, not Red-Beard; Bocanegra, not Black Muzzle; St. Peter, not Stone the Apostle.

'The praise of accuracy is all to which I lay claim for the present work; and that I claim confidently. Perhaps others may not see the beauties which I perceive; the necessity of dwelling upon every sentence has produced in me a love for the whole. The reader will pass rapidly where I have lingered and loitered; he who drives post through a country sees not the same beauties as the foot traveller. But the merit of the work itself is not now to be ascertained, the verdict of ages has decided that. Amadis of Gaul is among prose, what Orlando Furioso is among metrical Romances, not the oldest of its kind, but the best.[a].

The story of Amadis teems with incident and adventure. Its outlines, however, may be thus shortly sketched.

Garinter, king of Britanny, had two daughters, of whom the eldest was married to the king of Scotland; and the second, *Elisena*, (styled, from her holy life, the *Lost Devotee*,) captivated the heart of Perion, king of Gaul, and her father's guest. The lovers, in a nocturnal interview, plighted mutual faith, and anticipated hymeneal bliss. On receiving tidings of his father's demise, Perion returns to Gaul, and, from a combination of singular adventures, is prevented from concluding the marriage. Elisena, meanwhile, is delivered of a male child; and, to conceal her disgrace, and elude the sentence of death incurred by every maiden who had violated her chastity, her infant, Amadis, is placed by her confidant in a small cradle, and launched into the sea. Gandales, a Scottish knight, who was returning in a galley to his native country, fortunately rescues the babe from the watery element. Perion at length celebrates his nuptials with Elisena; by whom he has a second son, named Galaor, who was carried off by a giant, and trained to feats of chivalrous enterprize. At the court of Scotland, whither Amadis, the *child of the sea*, had been conducted by his preserver, he falls violently in love with Oriana, daughter of Lisuarte, king of Britain. When knighted by the hands of his father, who came to Scotland to solicit aid against Abies, king of Ireland, the *child of the sea* prevails with Oriana to receive him as her champion; and emboldened by knighthood and the smiles of his lady, he sallies forth to signalize his prowess in the Scottish army,

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army, which was levied for the purpose of relieving Perion. On his way, he receives from the fairy Urganda, the unknown, a powerful lance, with which he rescues his father from the thraldom of Arcalaus the enchanter, and reforms the abuses of Galpan, a lawless baron. Having thus procured renown, he joins the Scottish army, and reaches Britanny, attended by his foster-brother Gandalin, in the capacity of his squire. In the first pitched battle, the Irish prevail, notwithstanding the prodigies of valour performed by Perion and his son: the latter, however, slays Abies in single combat, and thus terminates the war. By means of tokens which had been placed with him in the cradle, he is now recognized as the son of Perion and Elisena. Galaor, who was knighted by his brother, without knowing him, proves equally successful in accomplishing the purpose for which he had been carried off by Gandalac, namely, to maintain a conflict with a brother giant.—On his return to Lisuarte's court, Amadis encounters various adventures. When benighted, and overtaken in a storm, he is repulsed by Dardan from his castle, but is courteously received into the tents of two young damsels. To them he promises to meet Dardan in the lists, in defence of a noble lady, at the court of king Lisuarte.

'On the day of the trial, the Damsels rose at dawn, and told Amadis that they would go before to the town, and send him word when it was time to appear. He rode with them to the edge of the forest, and there awaited. By this it was sunrise, and King Lisuarte with a goodly company went out to the field which was between the city and the forest; and there came Dardan, well armed and on a fair courser, leading the bridle of his Lady, who was as richly adorned as she could be; and thus they stopped before King Lisuarte. And Dardan said, Sir, command that this Lady have that which is her own delivered to her; or, if there be a Knight to gainsayit, I am ready to combat him. Lisuarte then called the Dame, and asked her if she was provided with a champion. She answered no; and wept; and the King greatly pitied her, for she was a virtuous Lady. So Dardan entered the lists, to remain there till the hour of tierce; by which time, if no champion appeared, the King was to pronounce judgment in his favour, according to the custom. Then one of the Damsels hastened to call Amadis, and he took his arms and told the Damsels and Gandalin that if he sped well he would return to them in the tents, and with that he rode on, on his white courser. When the King saw the Knight approach, how firmly he rode, and his arms how fair they were, and his horse how goodly a one, he marvelled who he might be, and asked the Dame, who was brought to trial, if she knew the Knight who came to defend her cause. I never saw him before, quoth she, nor know I who he is. By this, Amadis entered the lists and rode up to his enemy,—Dardan, defend your Lady's cause, as I shall maintain and acquit the promise which I made thee!

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And what didst thou promise me? quoth Dardan.—To fight thee, and that was when thou toldest me thy name, and hadst dealt with me villainously. I make the less account of thee now, said Dardan; and I, said Amadis, care less for thy words, for I am about to have vengeance. Let the Dame then, replied Dardan, accept thee for her champion, and avenge thyself if thou canst. The King then came up; the Dame was asked if she would admit that Knight for her defender. She replied, yes, and God reward him! Lisuarte saw that the shield of Amadis was pierced in many places, and that the rim had many sword cuts, and he said, if the Knight demanded another shield, he could lawfully give him one; but Amadis was in no temper for delay, for he remembered the insults he had received. They ran their course, both lances pierced through shield and armour and shivered, but without wounding; their horses and shields met, and Dardan was thrown, but he held the reins fast, and sprung readily upon the horse again, and drew his sword, and they attacked each other so fiercely that all who beheld them were astonished. The town's people were on the towers and on the wall and wherever else they could see the combat, and the windows of the Queen's palace, which were above the wall, were full of Dames and Damsels, all marvelling at the valour of the combatants, for the fire flew from their helmets as if they were all a blaze, and plates and splinters fell on all sides from their shields and mail, and neither a whit abated of his courage. King Lisuarte had been himself in many a hard conflict and seen many a one, but all appeared nothing to this. This is the bravest combat, said he, that ever man hath seen, and I will have the conqueror's image placed over my palace gate, that all who are desirous to gain honour may behold it.

'But before the hour of tierce it was evident that Dardan's force failed, though Amadis was nothing abated of his strength, only his horse was faint, and Dardan's also stumbled, and he thinking to have the advantage on foot, said to Amadis, Knight, our horses fail us for fatigue: if we were on foot I should soon conquer thee. This he said so loud that the King and all with him could hear; and Amadis, somewhat ashamed at the threat, answered, alight then! though a Knight should never leave his horse while he can sit on it. Then alighting, they both took what of their shields remained, and assailed each other more fiercely than before; but Amadis now prest on him, and Dardan retreated and staggered, and sometimes bent his knees, so that all the beholders said he had committed a great folly in proposing to fight on foot; and he still giving back from the sword of Amadis, came under the Queen's window, and there was a cry there "Holy Mary, Dardan is slain!" and Amadis heard among them the voice of the Damsel of Denmark. Then he looked up, and saw his Lady Oriana at the window, and the Damsel by her: that sight so overcame him that the sword hung loose in his hand, and he continued looking up regardless of his situation. Dardan, recovering by this respite, noticed his confusion, and took heart again; and, lifting the sword with both hands, smote him on the helmet so that it was twisted on his head. Amadis did not return the blow, he only placed his helmet right again, and with

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that Dardan laid on him at all parts. and he feebly defended himself, and Dardan's courage increased. Then cried the Damsel of Denmark, in an ill minute did that Knight look up and see one here who made him forget himself when his enemy was at the point of death! Certes such a Knight ought not to fail in such a time! At these words, Amadis had such shame that willingly would he have been dead lest his Lady should suspect there was any cowardice in him, and he struck a blow at Dardan that brought him down, and plucked his helmet off, and held the sword to his face,—Dardan, you are dead, unless you yield the cause! Mercy, Knight! quoth he, and I yield it. Then the King came up; but Amadis, for the shame of what had befallen him would make no tarriance, but sprung to his horse, and rode the fastest that he could into the forest.

'The mistress of Dardan, who saw him so rudely handled, came up to him now and said, seek now, Dardan, some other mistress, for I will neither love thee nor any other than that good Knight who overcame thee! What! said Dardan, have I been so wounded and conquered in your quarrel, and now you forsake me for the very enemy; God! thou art a right woman to say this, and I will give thee thy reward! and he took his sword, and in a moment smote her head from her body. Then, after a minute's thought he cried, Ah, wretch! I have slain the thing in the world that I loved best! and he ran himself through before any one could stop his hand. In the uproar that this occasioned, none thought of following Amadis; and though Dardan was so brave a Knight, yet most who were present now rejoiced at his death, for his strength had always been unjustly and tyrannically employed.'

The triumphant hero is again received by Lisuarte with kindness, and by Oriana with tenderness. Resuming his chivalrous career, he encounters, at the instigation of a dwarf, the formidable Arcalaus, and relieves the captives who were detained in his castle, but is himself held in confinement by a spell. Arcalaus seizes on Oriana by a stratagem: but Amadis, liberated by his protecting Urganda, rescues his fair princess, and receives her hand as the reward of his services.—Among the distressed ladies whom our valiant knight had relieved, was the fair queen Briolania. In maintaining her rights against all gainsayers, he was sorely wounded; and when he was laid in bed, the 'fair queen never left him but when she went to sleep herself.' No wonder that Oriana became jealous of her lord, and indited an angry letter, which he received at the very time that he had atchieved the adventure of the Firm Island. In this island, was an enchanted chamber, which could only be entered by the most faithful lover on earth. The hero's progress into this *sanctum sanctorum* is thus described:

'Then gave he his horse and arms to Gandalin, and went on without fear, as one who felt that never in deed or in thought had he been faithless to his Lady. When he came under the arch, the

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Image began a sound far different and more melodious than he had ever before done, and showered down flowers of great fragrance from the mouth of the trumpet, the like of which had never been done before to any Knight who entered. He past on to the Images, and here Agrayes, who apprehended something of his passion, met him and embraced him, and said, Sir, my Cousin, there is no reason that we should henceforth conceal from each other our loves. But Amadis made no reply, but taking his hand, they went to survey the beauties of the garden.

'Don Galaor and Florestan, who waited for them without, seeing that they tarried, besought Ysanjo, the Governor, to shew them the Forbidden Chamber, and he led them towards the perrons. Sir brother, said Florestan, what will you do? Nothing, replied Galaor; I have no mind to meddle with enchantments. Then amuse yourself here, quoth Florestan, I will try my fortune. He then commended himself to God, threw his shield before him, and proceeded sword in hand. When he entered the spell, he felt himself attacked on all sides with lances and swords, such blows and so many that it might be thought never man could endure them; yet, for he was strong and of good heart, he ceased not to make his way, striking manfully on all sides, and it felt in his hand as though he were striking armed men, and the sword did not cut. Thus struggling, he passed the copper perron, and advanced as far as the marble one, but there his strength failed him, and he fell like one dead, and was cast out beyond the line of the spell. When Galaor saw this he was displeased, and said, however little I like these things, I must take my share in the danger! and bidding the Squires and the Dwarf to stay by Florestan, and throw cold water in his face, he took his arms and commended himself to God, and advanced towards the Forbidden Chamber. Immediately the unseen blows fell upon him, but he went on, and forced his way up to the marble perron, and there he stood; but, when he advanced another step beyond, the blows came on him so heavy a load, that he fell senseless, and was cast out like Florestan.

'Amadis and Agrayes were reading the new inscription in the jasper, This is Amadis of Gaul, the true lover, son to King Perion, —when Ardian the Dwarf came up to the line, and cried out, Help! help, Sir Amadis, your brothers are slain! They hastened out to him, and asked how it was.—Sir, they attempted the Forbidden Chamber, and did not atchieve it, and there they lie for dead! Immediately they rode towards them, and found them so handled as you have heard, albeit some little recovering. Then Agrayes, who was stout of heart, alighted and went on as fast as he could to the Forbidden Chamber, striking aright and aleft with his sword, but his strength did not suffice to bear the blows, he fell senseless between the perrons, and was cast out as his cousins had been. Then Amadis began to curse their journey thither, and said to Galaor, who was now revived, Brother, I must not excuse my body from the danger which yours have undergone. Galaor would have withheld him, but he took his arms, and went on, praying God to help him. When he came to the line of the spell, there he paused for a moment, and said, O Oriana, my Lady, from you proceeds all my strength and courage! remember me now at

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at this time, when your dear remembrance is so needful to me! Then he went on. The blows fell thick upon him and hard till he reached the marble perron, but then they came so fast as if all the Knights in the world were besetting him, and such an uproar of voices arose as if the whole world were perishing, and he heard it said, if this Knight should fail, there is not one in the world who can enter. But he ceased not to proceed, winning his way hardly, sometimes beaten down upon his hands, sometimes falling upon his knees; his sword fell from his hand, and, though it hung by a thong from the wrist, he could not recover it, yet holding on still he reached the door of the chamber, and a hand came forth and took him by the hand to draw him in, and he heard a voice which said, Welcome is the Knight who shall be Lord here, because he passeth in prowess him who made the enchantment, and who had no peer in his time. The hand that led him was large, and hard, like the hand of an old man, and the arm was sleeved with green sattin. As soon as he was within the chamber it let go his hold, and was seen no more, and Amadis remained fresh, and with all his strength recovered; he took the shield from his neck and the helmet from his head, and sheathed his sword, and gave thanks to his Lady Oriana for this honour, which for her sake he had won. At this time they of the castle who had heard the voices resign the lordship, and saw Amadis enter, began to cry out, God be praised, we see accomplished what we have so long desired When his brethren saw that he had atchieved that wherein they had failed, they were exceedingly joyful, because of the great love they bore him, and desired that they might be carried to the chamber; and there the Governor with all his train went to Amadis, and kissed his hand as their Lord. Then saw they the wonders which were in the chamber, the works of art and the treasures, such that they were amazed to see them. Yet all this was nothing to the chamber of Apolidon and Grimanesa, for that was such, that not only could no one make the like, but no one could even imagine how it could be made; it was so devised, that they who were within could clearly see what was doing without, but from without nothing could be seen within. There they remained some time with great pleasure; the Knights, because one of their lineage was found to exceed in worth all living men, and all who for a hundred years had lived: the islanders, because they trusted to be well ruled and made happy under such a Lord, and even to master other lands. Sir, quoth Ysanjo, it is time to take food and rest for to-day: to-morrow, the good men of the land will come and do homage to you. So that day they feasted in the palace, and the following day all the people assembled and did homage to Amadis as their Lord, with great solemnities and feasting and rejoicing.'

What availed the success of the adventure, however, since Oriana upbraided her knight with disloyalty? Abandoned to despair, he renounced his honourable profession, and, in the society of the hermit of the *poor rock*, had nearly perished by rigid acts of penance. Oriana, at length undeceived, discovers his retreat, recalls him to her presence, and bids him live for her

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sake. Amadis revives at her command, is again happy, and again performs prodigies of valour at Lisuarte's court, which was held in the *island* of Windsor. The king, however, instigated by base and envious courtiers, treats him with contempt and injustice. Indignant at this usage, Amadis and his friends renounce the court, and retire to the Firm Island, of which he had become the sovereign. Galaor continued attached to Lisuarte; and even Amadis, unwilling to wage war against the father of his beloved princess, roams, in disguise, in quest of adventures. The king of Britain, though relieved by his generous arm, still refuses to receive him into favour. Oriana, during the prolonged absence of her lover, is secretly delivered of a son, named Esplandian. This infant is carried off by a *lioness*, and educated by Nasciano, a sainted hermit, on a plan somewhat different from that proposed by Locke or Rousseau, Hamilton or Edgeworth:

'When Esplandian was four years old, Nasciano the hermit sent for him, and when he saw how well grown he was for his age and how fair, he marvelled greatly, and blessed him, and the child embraced him as if he had known him. Then the hermit sent his sister home, keeping with him her son and Esplandian, who had been fed with the same milk; these children remained playing together before the hermitage till Esplandian grew tired, and lay down under a tree and feel asleep. Now the Lioness coming as was her wont to the hermit for food, saw the child and went up to him, and after smelling him all round lay down by his side. The other boy ran crying to the good man and told him that a great dog was going to eat Esplandian. The good man went out to see the Lioness, who came and fawned upon him, and the child waking and seeing the Lioness said, father is this fine dog ours? No said the good man, he is God's, to whom all things belong.—I wish father he were ours!—Do you wish to feed him son? yes replied the child; the old man then fetched him the leg of a stag, which some hunters had given him, and the child gave it to the Lioness, and played with her ears, and put his hands in her mouth. And you must know that from this time the Lioness came every day, and guarded him whenever he walked out from the hermitage. And when he was grown bigger, Nasciano gave him a bow fit for him, and another to his nephew, and they learned to shoot: the Lioness always went out with them, and if they wounded a stag she would fetch him for them. Now the hermit had certain friends who were hunters, and they would sometimes go out with Esplandian, for the sake of the Lioness that she might bring in their game, and thus Esplandian learned to hunt, and in this manner he passed his time, being taught by that holy man.'

In due time, Esplandian was presented to his grandfather, and received into his mother's suite.

Amadis, meanwhile, among other adventures, encounters the Endriago, a hideous monster, sprung from a giantess by incestuous

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estuous commerce with her own father, and who perpetrated savage cruelties in the *Devil's Island.*

'The Endriago came on breathing smoke and flames of fire in its fury, and gnashing its teeth and foaming, and ruffling its scales and clapping its wings that it was horrible to see it, and when the Knight saw it and heard its dreadful voice, he thought all that had been told him was nothing to what the truth was, and the monster branded towards them more eagerly because it was long since it had seen living man. But the horses took fright at seeing it, and ran away in spite of all the Knight and Gandalin could do, so the Knight dismounted and said, brother, keep you aloof that we may not both perish, and see what success God will give me against this dreadful Devil, and pray to him to help me that I may restore this island to his service, or if I am to die here, to have mercy upon my soul; for the rest do as I have said before.'

After a fierce and tremendous combat,

'The Endriago was faint and weak with its wound, and our Lord having wrath that the wicked one had so long had the dominion over those who, sinners as they were, believed his holy catholick faith, was pleased to give the Knight strength and especial grace to perform what else could not by course of nature have been done. He aimed his sword at the other eye, but God guided it to one of the nostrils, for they were large and spreading, and so hard he thrust, that it reached the brain, the Endriago itself forcing it on, for seeing him so near, it grappled with him and plucked him towards itself, and with its dreadful talon rent away the arms from his back, and crushed the flesh and bones to the very entrails, but then being suffocated with its own blood, and the sword being in its brain, and above all the sentence of God being passed upon it, its grasp relaxed and it fell like one dead, and the Knight plucked out his sword and thrust it down its throat till he killed the monster.'—

The prosecution of distant adventures, however, had nearly proved fatal to the Knight's repose: for Lisuarte, stimulated by ambition, and hoping to secure the succession of his crown to his younger and favourite daughter, betrothed Oriana to El Patin, Emperor of Rome, who had solicited her hand. Already she had embarked for Italy: but the fleet was intercepted by a squadron from the Firm Island, and Oriana conducted thither in triumph. In vain Lisuarte struggles to avenge the insult, and fights two desperate but unsuccessful battles with the knights of the Firm Island. His Roman allies are cut to pieces, and their emperor slain. Nasciano at length reveals Oriana's history, and mediates a suspension of hostilities. King Aravigo, in the mean time, at the instigation of Arcalaus, lay in wait for Lisuarte, with a powerful army. Amadis once more extricates the king of Britain from a host who would otherwise have overpowered him, defeats and kills Aravigo, and obtains at last the reconciliation of Lisuarte:

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'And now Amadis led on Oriana in whom all beauty was centered. She advanced with gentle step and firm countenance to the line of the spell, and there she crossed herself, and commended herself to God, and went on. She felt nothing till she had passed both the perrons; but when she was within a step of the chamber, she felt hands that pushed her and dragged her back, and three times they forced her back to the marble perron; but she with her fair hands repelled them on both sides, and it seemed as if she were thrusting hands and arms from her, and thus by her perseverance and good heart, but above all by reason of her surpassing beauty, she came, though sorely wearied, to the door of the chamber and laid hold on the door post; and then the hand and arm which had led in Amadis, came out and took her hand, and above twenty voices sung these words sweetly, Welcome is the noble Lady, who hath excelled the beauty of Grimanesa, the worthy companion of the Knight who, because he surpasses Apolidon in valour, hath now the lordship of this Island, which shall be held by his posterity for long ages. The hand then drew her in, and she was as joyful as though the whole world had been given her, not so much for the prize of beauty which had been won, as that she had thus proved herself the worthy mate of Amadis, having like him, entered the Forbidden Chamber, and deprived all others of the hope of that glory.

'Ysanjo then said, that all the enchantments of the Island were now at an end, and all might freely enter that chamber. They all went in and beheld the most sumptuous chamber that could be devised; and they embraced Oriana with such joy as though they had not for long while seen her. Then was the feast spread, and the marriage bed of Amadis and Oriana made in that chamber which they had won.

'PRAISE BE TO GOD.'

From the extracts which we have blended with the foregoing sketch, our readers will perceive that Mr. Southey has adopted a style of language highly suitable to the genius of the old romance. On this account, we are willing to overlook some slight grammatical inaccuracies, and an excessive economy of punctuation.

We are surprized that Mr. Southey, with all his poetical facilities, should have pressed into his pages the miserable verses of Anthony Munday. Though young men are exhorted, on high authority, to be *sober-minded*, our translator would surely blush to be guilty of such lines as the following, or to avow that he could not do more justice to his original:

'Sith that the victory of right deserved
By wrong they do withhold for which I served!
Now sith my glory thus hath had a fall,
Glorious it is to end my life withall.
By this my death, likewise my woes release,
My hope, my joy, my inflamed love doth cease.
But ever will I mind my during pain,

For

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For they to end my glory and my gain,
Myself have murdered, and my glory slain.'

Among other suppressions intimated in the margin, we observe 'a column of advice to all Emperors and Kings upon the mutability of fortune,' and 'a page of advice to all wicked kings and rulers.'—We hope that the violent politicians of the day, if such there *now* be in this country, will give Mr. Southey credit for his forbearance,—as we certainly do for his masterly translation.

ART. III. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London*, for the Year 1804. Part II. 4to. pp. 240. 12s. 6d. sewed, Nicol and Son.

CHEMICAL and MINERALOGICAL PAPERS, &c.

ANALYTICAL Experiments and Observations on Lac. By Charles Hatchett, *Esq., F.R.S.*—The period at which the peculiar substance, called Lac, was first brought into Europe from the East Indies, is unknown. For a long time after its introduction, it was conceived to be of vegetable origin, until the successive researches of Mr. Kerr, Mr. Saunders, and Dr. Roxburgh, made us acquainted with its natural history, and shewed it to be the nidus of a peculiar species of insect, named Coccus, or *Chermes Lacca*. It is imported into this country under three forms, which are respectively called stick, seed, and shell Lac; the first of these exhibiting the substance in its natural state. The chemical analysis of Lac has been but little the object of attention; and it appears, indeed, that it has never been investigated with any degree of accuracy since the time of Geoffroy, who first subjected it to experiment, and was induced to consider it as a species of wax.

In the opening section of the present paper, Mr. Hatchett relates 'the effects of different menstrua on the varieties of Lac.' The first re-agent employed was water, which extracted from it a portion of colouring matter; and a considerable part of the residue was soluble in alcohol, by which the resinous part was separated. The effects of ether, and of the sulphuric, nitric, muriatic, acetous, and acetic acids, were successively noticed; and afterward those of the boracic acid, borax itself, and the three alkalies, both in their pure and in their carbonated state. The sulphuric, muriatic, and acetic acids exercise a considerable solvent power over the different kinds of Lac: but the caustic fixed alkalies, and borax (probably on account of the excess of soda which it contains), are the menstrua which most completely dissolve it. The alkaline solutions of Lac are of a

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saponaceous consistence, and are decomposed by the addition of an acid.

The 2d section contains 'analytical experiments on shell, seed, and stick Lac.' After having stated the results produced by the distillation of the three species, the author proceeds to the analysis of stick lac. The substance was first digested in boiling water, until no farther effect was produced by this menstruum; what was left undissolved by water was next digested in cold alcohol; and the residuum from the alcohol was treated with muriatic acid. A certain quantity of the lac was separated by each of these menstrua, and a portion of it remained undissolved. The matter separated by the water exhibited the characters of a vegetable extract; the alcohol dissolved the resinous part; the muriatic acid removed a peculiar matter, which strongly resembled vegetable gluten; and the part left undissolved seemed to possess the leading properties of wax. The same operations were repeated on seed lac, and the same constituents were found to exist, only in different proportions.

In the analysis of the shell Lac, a somewhat different plan was pursued. After the operation of the water, alcohol, and muriatic acid, as in the former instance, the substance was digested in acetic acid. Alcohol was then added, by which the wax was precipitated in a pure state. Distilled water separated from the alcohol a portion of the resin which still adhered to it; and the carbonate of potash threw down a second portion of gluten, which had not been detected by the muriatic acid. These experiments prove that Lac is composed of four substances, extract, resin, gluten, and wax, which exist in different proportions in the different species.

The properties of these four substances are then considered more at large. The extract is marked by its partial solubility in water and in alcohol, its insolubility in ether, and the precipitates which it affords with alum and the muriate of tin. The resin of Lac appears to possess every property of a vegetable resin; it is soluble in alcohol, in ether, in the acetic and nitric acids, and in the lixivia of potash and soda; from the first four of which substances it is precipitated by water. What Mr. Hatchett has named the *gluten of lac* undoubtedly possesses many properties in common with vegetable gluten: but he informs us that he proposes to make it the subject of farther examination. The last constituent of Lac, the waxy part, differs in some of its properties from the wax of the bee, but bears the most striking analogy to the myrtal wax obtained from the *myrica cerifera*, according to the account of this substance lately published by Dr. Bostock, in Nicholson's *Philosophical Journal*.

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Journal. The author concludes that 'Lac may be denominated a cero-resin, mixed with gluten and vegetable extract.'

The third and last section consists of 'general remarks.' Though Lac is certainly the production of insects, it possesses few of the characters of animal substances; while both its general properties, and the nature of its component parts, are much more analagous to vegetable bodies. In the East Indies, it is applied to a variety of purposes; and Mr. Hatchett supposes that it might be an useful article in the preparation of varnishes and water colours, since it is not easily affected by moisture. He infers from his experiments on Lac, that alkalies, and some of the acids, powerfully act on resins in general; an idea which is contrary to the opinion usually adopted on this point.

This paper affords a complete account of the substance proposed to be examined; and though the subject does not give scope for very profound analysis, nor afford an opportunity of promoting the general doctrines of chemistry, it will form a valuable addition to our knowlege of the nature and properfies of individual substances.

Observations on Basalt, and on the transition from the vitreous to the stone texture which occurs in the gradual refrigeration of melted Basalt; with some geological remarks. In a letter from Gregory Watt, *Esq. to the Right Hon.* Charles Greville, *F.R.S.* —The interesting results of Sir James Hall's experiments on the cooling of Basalt * suggested to Mr. Watt the idea of repeating them on a larger scale, and under somewhat different circumstances. For this purpose, about seven hundred weight of the peculiar substance called *Rowley Rag* was fused in a common reverbatory furnace; it was easily melted; and a little of it being taken out by a ladle was found to produce a perfect glass. The fire was maintained for six hours; after which the chimney was closed; the surface of the liquid mass was covered with heated sand; and eight days elapsed before the materials were sufficiently cool to admit of examination. The substance, when removed from the furnace, was of a wedge-like shape; and from the difference of its thickness, and the unequal action of the heat, its several parts exhibited very various appearances, shewing the gradations by which it passed from the vitreous to the stony state. Mr. Watt gives a minute account of five different products, which he obtained from this portion of Basalt, depending apparently on the length of time occupied in the cooling of the several parts.

* Transactions of the Royal Society of Edinburgh, Vol. V. See Rev. Vol. xxxvi. N. S. p. 153.

A sudden

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A sudden abstraction of heat produced a hard, black, opaque glass. The first step towards its conversion into the stony texture was indicated by the formation of a number of spheroids, resembling jasper, which were thickly scattered through the mass. A farther continuance of heat produced secondary spheroids, in the centre of the former, exhibiting a distinct, radiated texture, apparently made up of concentric layers. It was observed that, when two or more of the radiated spheroids came into contact, they seemed incapable of penetrating into each other's substance, but they became compressed, so as to have their spheroidal figure converted into a prismatic form. A fourth change consisted in the generation of a compact nucleus in the centre of these spheroids, which, after having occupied the whole extent of the spheroid, propagated itself into the adjacent matter. The fifth and last change consisted in the substance of the whole mass becoming granulated, of a greyish colour, and exhibiting a number of brilliant points, which arranged themselves in a regular crystalline form. It may be conjectured that a longer continuance of the heat would have caused the whole mass to assume this granulated appearance, and that the size of the crystals would have been augmented.

Mr. Watt offers some ingenious speculations on the formation of these different products. From the appearances exhibited in the above experiment, he is led to conclude that, after a body has become solid, its particles may still enter into new arrangements. After the jasper-like spheroid had been produced by the first degree of cooling, the subsequent change of structure commenced in the centre of these spheroids, and the next alteration took place in a similar manner. The radiating spheroids are produced, as he supposes, by the successive addition of matter round the original nucleus; hence their compactness does not diminish as the radiations become more and more remote from the centre; and thus he accounts for their not being able to penetrate into each other's substance. It is not difficult to conceive that the particles of the melted glass might form a new arrangement, during their state of fusion, and might assume the appearance and characters of a stone; but that the jasper-like substance should first be formed, that this should be converted into the radiated spheroids, and that these again should undergo two successive alterations in structure before the crystals were produced, are considered by the author as a train of circumstances which may justly excite our surprize. It is taken for granted, as may be perceived, that in all cases the jasper globules are produced and become solid; and that, while in their state of solidity, they are afterward converted

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converted into the radiated spheroids, and so on through the remaining changes. It had been advanced by Mr. Smithson, that solution is only so far necessary to crystallization, as that the particles of which bodies are composed may be effectually disengaged from each other, so that they may be permitted to assume that regular form to which they have a tendency. Solution, either by heat or by water, so complete as to destroy the molecules which form the basis of all crystals, is incompatible with crystallization; and in fact the process cannot take place, until, by the abstraction of a part of the heat or of the water, the molecules are permitted to form. The only requisite for the generation of crystals is that the particles be suspended in a medium 'of such density, that the crystalline polarity may be enabled to counteract the power of gravity.'

To these observations of Mr. Smithson we feel disposed to give our assent: but Mr. Watt, as we have seen, carries his ideas still farther, and conceives that crystallization can take place while the body remains in a solid state. As a proof of this opinion, he adduces the conversion of glass into what is called Reaumur's porcelain; a process in which the particles of the glass are supposed to assume a new arrangement analogous to crystallization, in a case in which it is admitted that fusion does not take place: but it may be conjectured that, in this instance, the change is produced simply by a condensation or contraction of the particles, without the formation of any specific arrangement; a process which can scarcely be compared to the successive alterations of texture which were observed in the basalt. With respect to the experiment, it seems to us at least as probable that the part of the mass, in which the crystals were formed, remained fluid until their arrangement was completed: if the same matter had been taken from the furnace in a previous stage of the process, it would, according to the period of the experiment, have formed the jasper globule, or the radiated spheroid, or the solid nucleus; each of which were found in different parts of the mass, according as they had been cooled at an earlier or later stage of the operation. Mr. Watt remarks that, in the crystallization of a compound fluid, the order in which the several components commence this process must depend on their relative quantities, and the force of their attractions. It may therefore happen that the molecules of a more fusible crystal may begin to coalesce before those of one which is less fusible; and in this case the crystals of the more refractory substance may be moulded on the more fusible body, because this latter was the first to commence the process of crystallization.

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The author conceives that the same laws of crystallization, which we have found to prevail with respect to bodies in a state of fusion, must also regulate the arrangement of aqueous solutions. He remarks that these likewise are dependent on heat, as a certain temperature is necessary before water can exert its solvent power. This is undoubtedly true; yet we could not *à priori* conclude that the same progress of crystalization, which takes place in a solution composed merely of caloric and the fused body, would be produced in the same solution after it had received the addition of a quantity of water. Mr. Watt, however, proceeds to establish the analogy between the igneous and the aqueous solution, by pointing out several instances in which the successive depositions of substances dissolved or suspended in water seemed to follow the same order of changes that were observed in the experiment on the basalt. It is ingeniously suggested that, when a compound body is subjected to fusion, according to the degree to which this process is pushed, a great diversity may prevail in the products of the operation. Simple fusion will merely destroy the aggregation of the parts; and when the heat is not too rapidly carried off, the substance will almost necessarily resume the same texture which it exhibited before the experiment. If, however, the fusion was carried to such an extent that the molecules themselves were decomposed, Mr. W. conceives that new molecules, and of course new crystals, may be produced; and thus 'the same rock may become the parent of very diversified offspring.' This idea may be applied very successfully to the elucidation of volcanic products, and will prevent the necessity of supposing that there must exist, in the interior of the mountain, a stratum of every kind of product which is observed to be discharged from it.

Proceeding on the analogy which Mr. Watt has endeavoured to establish between the effects of the igneous and the aqueous solution, he concludes that the transition, which has been exhibited in fused basalt from glass to stone, cannot determine the great question respecting the origin of this substance. That it may be formed by fire has now been demonstrated by actual experiment: but he supposes that there is a strong reason, from analogy, to admit that it may also be produced by the operation of water. Individual phænomena have been observed in natural basaltic rocks, which perhaps equally favour either hypothesis.

This interesting paper concludes with a very ingenious attempt to apply the principles laid down, to the explanation of the regular figure and the articulations which are observed in

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in natural basaltic columns. If we suppose a valley to be filled with a large mass of fluid basalt, the abstraction of either the heat or the water which retained it in its fluid state must be carried on more regularly and gradually at the under surface. This part must therefore be disposed to generate the jasper-like globules, and afterward the radiated spheroids; which would probably form a tolerably regular stratum near the lower surface of the mass. These spheroids, as was shewn in the experiments, cannot penetrate into each other's substance; so that, when by the continuance of the process their bulk became progressively augmented, they must be pushed upwards into columns, which must necessarily assume the hexagonal form. The appearance of the spheroids seemed to indicate that they were effected by the addition of concentric layers; and it is obvious that the convex articulations of the basaltic columns would be produced by the same operation. Where the centres of the spheroids were equidistant, the resulting prisms would be hexagonal: but, if any considerable difference took place in this respect, they might assume every variety of form.

It is evident that this hypothesis accords very happily with natural phænomena; and it is accurately deduced from the appearances exhibited in the experiment.

The analysis which we have given of this paper will, we hope, enable our readers to form a just idea of its merit: since we deem it intitled to very distinguished approbation. The speculations of Mr. Watt are always ingenious, and generally just; and we scarcely recollect to have ever met with any explanation of a geological phænomenon, at the same time so applicable and so little forced. The paper is indeed nearly free from that extravagance of hypothesis which disfigures the writings of almost all mineralogists. Our tribute of praise is, however, intermingled with the sincerest regret, when we reflect that a genius, which seemed destined to throw light on the most hidden operations of nature, and to enlarge the boundaries of knowlege, is prematurely cut off in the bloom of youth; and has left the friends of science to conjecture what might have been the extent of his acquirements, had his life been prolonged to the usual term of human existence.

An Analysis of the Magnetical Pyrites: with Remarks on some of the other Sulphurets of Iron. By Charles Hatchett, *Esq. F. R. S.*—The sulphuret of iron, commonly called martial pyrites, is the most universally diffused mineral with which we are acquainted; since its numerous varieties are found in all climates and situations. The external characters of the different species have been accurately ascertained, and some valuable

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experiments have been made on the chemical analysis of the substance, by M. Proust of Madrid. One kind, however, which possessed the remarkable property of exhibiting strong magnetic polarity, has never yet been made the subject of chemical examination. This magnetical pyrites had hitherto been found only in some parts of Norway and Germany: but, in the year 1798, Mr. Robert Greville discovered it to exist abundantly in Caernarvonshire.

Mr. Hatchett here gives an account of the effects of heat on the magnetic sulphuret of iron. By digesting it in diluted sulphuric acid, precipitating by pure ammonia, and observing the effects of the prussiate of potash, he concludes that the iron in the solution was in the state of the green sulphate, and consequently that it existed in the pyrites in the metallic state; and the effects of the nitric and muriatic acids tended to confirm this conclusion. In order to obtain a more complete analysis of the substance, it was digested in muriatic acid, to which the nitric was afterward added; the iron was precipitated by ammoniac; and the sulphur was separated from the filtered liquor by the muriate of barytes. Hence it was easy to estimate the proportion of the original ingredients, which appear to be sulphur 36.5, and iron 63.5 parts, in 100 of the sulphuret. This analysis was confirmed, by repeating the experiment with nitric acid alone.—After having thus ascertained the ingredients of this particular sulphuret, Mr. Hatchett proceeded to examine, by a similar operation, the composition of other species of pyrites; and he found them nearly similar to each other, but differing considerably from the magnetic sulphuret; they contained on an average 53.24 per cent. of sulphur.

The experiments of M. Proust were some of the first which determined, with any degree of accuracy, the nature of the substance produced by the union of sulphur and iron. He has proved that, when this compound is formed artificially, it contains 37.5 per cent. of sulphur, the smallest quantity which can compose a proper sulphuret. The natural pyrites affords a greater quantity, which he estimates at 47.36 per cent.: but this cannot be imitated by any artificial process; while, on the contrary, the sulphuret of iron, containing a minimum of sulphur, he supposes has never been discovered as a natural production. It appears, however, from the present experiments of Mr. Hatchett, that the latter opinion of M. Proust was erroneous: since we observe the proportion of sulphur, detected in the magnetic pyrites, very nearly to coincide with that which is found to exist in the artificial sulphuret. The resemblance in their chemical properties induced Mr. Hatchett to examine whether the artificial pyrites did not likewise possess

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the magnetic power; and he observed that it was the case to a very considerable extent. He afterward formed a pyrites, which contained 45 *per cent.* of sulphur, and this also retained the magnetic power; a circumstance the more remarkable, because the natural pyrites, which are composed of no more than 52 *per cent.*, do not in any degree manifest this property. He subsequently discovered, by experiment, that the phosphuret of iron also was magnetic.

Mr. Hatchett's estimate of the proportion of sulphur in natural pyrites is found to differ considerably from that of M. Proust; there is, however, reason to believe that this latter chemist did not actually submit the sulphuret to a chemical analysis, but framed his calculation on a knowlege of the ingredients of the artificial pyrites, and the supposed quantity of sulphur which is expelled from the natural pyrites by heat.

These experiments establish a striking analogy between the properties of the sulphurets, the carbonets, and the phosphurets of iron. The first two of these substances are both magnetic, when the sulphur and carbon are at a minimum, but, when existing at their maximum, as in the natural pyrites and in plumbago, they no longer retain this property. At present, we are not acquainted with more than one phosphuret of iron.

Our readers will perceive that, in this paper, Mr. Hatchett has considerably enlarged our knowlege of the nature and properties of an extensive class of minerals, and has added some valuable facts to the obscure science of magnetism.

Remarks on the voluntary Expansion of the Skin of the Neck in the Cobra de Capello, or Hooded Snake, of the East Indies. By Patrick Russel, *M. D. F. R. S. With a Description of the Structure of the Parts which perform that office. By* Everard Home, *Esq. F. R. S* —All serpents, when irritated, are subject to an inflation of the external fauces: but, besides this action, that peculiar species called *Coluber Naja*, or *Cobra de Capello*, possesses a voluntary power of expanding the skin of the neck to a remarkable degree, so as to assume the appearance of a hood. Dr. Russel, on his return from the East Indies, brought with him some subjects for dissection, in order that the mechanism, by which this singular effect is produced, might be fully explained; and Mr. Home undertook the investigation, and has given a description of the structure of the parts, which fully explains the phænomenon.

The ribs nearest the head, to the number of twenty, instead of bending towards the abdomen in the same manner with the remainder, branch out in a lateral direction; and they are so articulated that, by the action of appropriate muscles, they

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may be parallel to the spine, or folded on each other, or may be extended and elevated into an oval form, and thus raise up the skin of the back, so as to produce the hood-like appearance. There are four sets of muscles employed to raise the hood, and three to depress it.—Mr. Home is unable to offer any satisfactory explanation of the purpose which this peculiar structure serves in the economy of the animal. It has no connection with the lungs, nor with the trachea; and the only conjecture which can be offered is, that it permits the œsophagus to become more fully expanded, and may thus assist the animal in the reception of its food.

Observations on the Change of some of the proximate Principles of Vegetables into Bitumen; with analytical Experiments on a peculiar Substance which is found with the Bovey Coal. By Charles Hatchett, *Esq. F. R. S.*—Few natural operations are more singular than that by which animal and vegetable bodies, after having been deprived of life, gradually lose their organic texture, and assume the properties and characters of mineral substances. Of these, some of the most interesting and important are the varieties of bitumen from naphtha and asphaltum, which exhibit specimens of it nearly in its pure state, to the different kinds of pit coal, in which it is mixed with a greater or less proportion of carbonaceous matter. The object of the present paper is to adduce some additional arguments in proof of the vegetable origin of bitumen; and the attention of Mr. Hatchett was directed to this subject, in consequence of some peculiarities which he observed in a specimen of schistus brought by Sir Joseph Banks from Iceland. Between the different lamellæ of this substance, there were strata of alder leaves discovered, in a half charred state, distinctly retaining their form and the peculiar arrangement of their fibres. These leaves were subjected to chemical analysis, and were found to contain a quantity of extract, and a small portion of resin. The lamellæ were afterward themselves examined, and were determined to belong to the class of the argillaceous schisti.—The leaves imbedded in this schistus, though considerably advanced to a state of carbonization, as it appears, still retained some of the properties of recent vegetables; and Mr. Hatchett conceived that, by examining other substances in this intermediate state, some light might probably be thrown on the process by which vegetable bodies in general are converted into bitumens. He therefore selected the Bovey coal as a proper subject for his experiments. After having ascertained the products obtained by the distillation of this substance, he examined the action of water and alcohol on it; and he was led to conclude that it very nearly resembled the leaves in the

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Iceland schistus, except that it did not contain any of the extractive matter.

'They agree, however, in every other respect; as they both consist of woody fibre in a state of semi-carbonization, impregnated with bitumen, and a small portion of resin, perfectly similar to that which is contained in many recent vegetable bodies; and thus it seems, that as the woody fibre, in these cases, still retains some part of its vegetable characters, and is but partially and imperfectly converted into coal, so, in like manner, some of the other vegetable principles have only suffered a partial change. Undoubtedly, there is every reason to believe that, next to the woody fibre, resin is the substance which, in vegetables passing to the fossil state, most powerfully resists any alteration; and that, when this is at length effected, it is more immediately the substance from which bitumen is produced. The instances which have been mentioned corroborate this opinion; for the vegetable extract in one of them, and more especially the resin which was discovered in both, must be regarded as part of those principles of the original vegetables which have remained, after some other portions of the same have been modified into bitumen.'

Mr. Hatchett's idea of the relation which subsists between resin and bitumen received a very strong confirmation, from the analysis of a peculiar substance which is frequently found intermixed with the Bovey coal; and which had been described as existing in the form of 'lumps of a bright yellow *loam*, extremely light, and so saturated with petroleum, that they burn like sealing wax, emitting a very agreeable and aromatic scent.' This substance was accurately examined; and from the products obtained by distillation, and the effect of the action of water, pot-ash, nitric acid, and alcohol, he discovered that it was composed of a mixture of resin and asphaltum, in the proportion of 55 parts of the former to 41 of the latter.

It is certainly a natural conclusion from this fact, that resin is the immediate source whence bitumen is derived; and that, in the present instance, either the process was going forwards, or, by some change in the external circumstances, its progress had been stopped, and the substances were accordingly left in this mixed state. The ingenious author justly remarks that something besides time seems necessary for the conversion of vegetables into bitumen or coal; because there are instances in which wood has been discovered nearly in its original condition, after having lain for ages in that kind of situation, which is generally reckoned most favourable for its conversion into the fossil state.

'*On two Metals, found in the black Powder remaining after the Solution of the Platina.* *By* Smithson Tennant, *Esq. F. R. S.*— When platina is digested in nitro-muriatic acid, a black powder remains undissolved, which was generally considered

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to consist of plumbago. It became, however, about the same time, the subject of examination with M. Descotils and M. Vauquelin; and they discovered, independently of each other, that it contains a metallic substance, which appeared to possess properties distinct from any metal hitherto known. Mr. Tennant had already ascertained the same fact; and, by pursuing his experiments still farther, he was led to detect a second new metal in this black powder. To the first of these he gave the name of *Iridium*, and the latter he called *Osmium*.

The black powder was dissolved by the alternate application of pure soda and the muriatic acid. Both these solutions contained some portions of each of the new metals: but the muriatic acid had principally taken up the *iridium*, while the alkali contained the greatest part of the *osmium*. *Iridium* may be obtained in a state of purity, by exposing its muriate to a sufficient degree of heat, which both drives off the acid and reduces the oxide.

The alkaline solution was conceived by M. Vauquelin to contain chrome, but Mr. Tennant was unable to detect the presence of this substance, while he separated from it the oxide of *osmium*. This oxide possesses the distinguishing characteristic of being easily volatilized, and of emitting a pungent odour, from which circumstance its name is derived. It may be obtained in a state of purity, by amalgamating its oxide with mercury, and driving off this latter substance by a sufficient degree of heat.

On a new Metal, found in crude Platina. *By* William Hyde Wollaston, *M. D. F. R. S.*—About the same time that Mr. Tennant was engaged in the experiments related in the preceding paper, Dr. Wollaston was employed in examining some others of the products of platina; and his researches have been rewarded by the discover of a third new metal. He also imagines that palladium exists in crude platina as a distinct metal, in opposition to the opinion of Mr. Chenevix, who supposed that he had formed it by the union of mercury and platina.

In order to obtain this new metal called rhodium, in a state of purity, crude platina is dissolved in nitro-muriatic acid, and precipitated by muriate of ammoniac. The metals which remain in the solution may be separated by zinc; a portion of lead and of copper, which is by this process thrown down, may be removed by diluted nitric acid; and the residue is to be digested in nitro-muriatic acid. To this solution, muriate of soda is added; and thus triple salts are formed of the metals which existed in the solution. This compound salt, consisting of the soda-muriates of platina, palladium, and rhodium, being washed

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with alcohol, the platina and palladium are carried off, and the rhodium alone left behind.—The platina was precipitated from the alcoholic solution by the muriate of ammoniac; and the palladium was afterward obtained from the solution, possessing all the properties of the substance exposed for sale under that name, and those pointed out by Mr. Chenevix. There seems, indeed, no doubt that palladium is contained in at least some specimens of crude platina; and we may therefore conclude, without any disparagement of Mr. Chenevix's accuracy, that this was the case with the platina on which he operated.

Mathematical *and* Astronomical Papers.

On the Integration of certain differential Expressions, with which Problems in Physical Astronomy are connected, &c. *By* Robert Woodhouse, *A.M. F.R.S* —In the solution of Physical Problems, the difficulty is two-fold: we must first express, unambiguously and concisely, their conditions in the general language, and under the formulas of analysis; and next, such formulas must be rendered commodious for arithmetical computation. For instance, the arc of a circle is properly represented by the integral of $\frac{x^{\cdot}}{\sqrt{(1-x^2)}}$: but the circumference cannot commodiously be computed from the series $x-\frac{x^3}{2.3}+$ &c. (putting $x=1$) on account of the slow convergency of that series: to obtain, therefore, a series more quickly converging, the expression $\frac{x^{\cdot}}{\sqrt{1-x^2}}$ ought to be transformed into another; and it is, in general, changed into such an expression as, $\frac{x^{\cdot}}{1+x^2}$. Simple transformation, however, is inadequate in a great variety of instances; as in the computation of logarithms from the expression $\int\frac{x^{\cdot}}{1+x}$: no substitution can be made for x, such that, from the expansion and integration of the resulting series, the logarithms of large numbers can be commodiously computed. It is inadequate, also, in the transformation of $x^{\cdot}\sqrt{\frac{(1-e^2x^2)}{(1-x^4)}}$. The author of the present memoir observes that there is no one series, from which, in all cases, in all values of e and x, the integral of the above expression can arithmetically be computed; and to exhibit a method by which, in every value of e, the integral may be expeditiously computed, is one principal object of his memoir. The expression $x^{\cdot}\sqrt{\frac{(1-e^2x^2)}{(1-x^4)}}$ frequently occurs in the application of analysis to the investigation of the properties of extension and motion.

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tion. It is the symbol for the fluxion of the time of vibration in a circular arc; and it is the symbol for the elementary or nascent elliptic arc: hence to integrate this expression is, in other words, to rectify an ellipse. The obvious and direct way of integrating the expression is to expand the numerator, and then to take the integral of each term; and, with the intention of treating the subject fully, Mr. Woodhouse deduces the common series that are arranged according to the powers of e, of $\sqrt{(1-e^2)}$ and of $\frac{e^2}{2-e^2}$. These series, however, are defective; and he proposes to exhibit two series, not produced by mere expansion, but dependent on a curious law of transformation, by which, in all cases, the integral may be computed with great ease and rapidity. We subjoin the principle of the method.

$$\text{Put } e' = \frac{1-\sqrt{1-e^2}}{1+\sqrt{1-e^2}}$$

$$u' = \frac{2}{1+e'} \cdot \sqrt{\left(\frac{1-x^2}{1-e'^2 x^2}\right)}$$

$$\text{then } x \cdot \sqrt{\left(\frac{1-e^2 x^2}{1-x^2}\right)} \cdot (f \cdot) = \frac{e^2}{4}(1+e')\, u' - \frac{1-e'}{2} \cdot \frac{u \cdot r}{\sqrt{(1-u'^2)\ (1-e'^2 u'^2)}} + \frac{1}{1+e'} f' \cdot$$

f' being similar to f

$$\text{Putting } e'' = \frac{1-\sqrt{1-e'^2}}{1+\sqrt{1-e'^2}}$$

$$u'' = \frac{2}{r+e''} \sqrt{\frac{1-u'^2}{1-e'^2 u'^2}}$$

f' may be transformed into a form precisely similar to that into which f has been changed; and the last term will involve f''; which may also be similarly transformed.

By this process, f, or the integral of $x \cdot \sqrt{\frac{1-e^2 x^2}{1-x^2}}$ is made to depend on f', f'', &c. Now where f involves e, f' involves e', f'' e'', &c. but $e' = \frac{e^2}{(1+\sqrt{1-e^2})^2}$, $e'' = \frac{e'^2}{(1+\sqrt{(1-e'^2)})}$ &c. consequently e being a fraction, the quantities e', e'', &c. decrease very rapidly, and f', f'', &c. can accordingly be exhibited in their arithmetical value, (a specific case being proposed,) with great ease.

Mr. Woodhouse shews that, if we stop at the first transformation, that is, if f be made to depend on f', the result agrees

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agrees with that which is obtained by Mr. Ivory by a different process, inserted by that skilful mathematician in the Edinburgh Transactions: which result is that f, the integral of $x \cdot \sqrt{\frac{1-e^2x^2}{1-x^2}}$, between the values of x, o, and 1,

$$= \frac{\pi}{2.(1+e')} \left\{ 1 + \frac{1^2}{2^2} \cdot e'^2 + \frac{1^2 \cdot 1^2}{2^2 \cdot 4^2} \cdot e'^4 + \text{&c.} \right\}$$ which, in other words, is the length of the elliptic quadrant.

Mr. W. next manifests that any degree of accuracy may be obtained by continuing the transformation; and that by continuing it indefinitely, the following form results;

$$f = \frac{e^2}{4} \cdot (1+e')\,u' + \frac{e^2 \cdot e' \cdot (1+e') \cdot (1+e'')}{4 \cdot 4}\,u'' + \text{&c.}$$

$$+ \frac{p}{2^n} \int \frac{u^2}{\sqrt{(1-v^2)}} - \frac{p}{2^n} \left\{ \frac{e^2}{2} + \frac{e^2 \cdot e'}{2 \cdot 2} + \frac{e^2 \cdot e' \cdot e''}{2 \cdot 2 \cdot 2} + \text{&c.} \right\}$$

$$\times \int \frac{dv}{\sqrt{1-v^2}}.$$

This form, he observes, is very commodious for all values of e between o and $\sqrt{\frac{1}{2}}$: it is the more commodious, the less e is; and in order to obtain a form for all values of e between $\sqrt{\frac{1}{2}}$ and 1, and that shall be most commodious when e is nearest to 1, he transforms f into a series or formula, involving b, $'b$, $''b$, &c. where $b = \sqrt{(1-e^2)}$ and $'b$, $''b$ are formed from b, and from each other, in the same way as e', e'', &c. were formed from e. This new form is nearly similar to the one which we have just exhibited, changing e, e', e'', &c. for b, $'b$, $''b$, &c.; and the $b.l\left\{z + \sqrt{1+z^2}\right\}$ for the arc, the integral of $\frac{dv}{\sqrt{1-v^2}}$ *.

After having exhibited this new formula for the integration of $x \cdot \sqrt{\frac{1-e'x^2}{1-x^2}}$, Mr. Woodhouse announces a remarkable theorem relating to the periphery of a circle; viz. suppose, in the series of quantities b, $'b$, $''b$, &c. formed according to preceding directions, that the 4th quantity is β, then (π = periphery of circle, whose diameter is 1)

$$\frac{\pi}{2} = 2 \cdot b \cdot l \frac{\left(1 + \sqrt{(1+\beta)}\right)}{2^n \sqrt{\beta}}$$

or, in particular cases,

$$\frac{\pi}{2} = 2^3 \cdot b \cdot l \frac{4}{'''b} \text{ more nearly} = 2^4 \, b \cdot l \frac{4}{''''b} \text{ &c.}$$

* By a typographical error, $\sqrt{}$ is put for v in p. 244.

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In the subsequent part of his memoir, the author deduces from his original substitution the theorem of Fagnani and others of a similar nature. He states also that what has been demonstrated by M. Legendre, Mr. Wallace, and Mr. Ivory, relating to the lengths of ellipses,—and the relation subsisting between those ellipses, whose excentricities vary according to a certain law, &c.—has, in fact, been deduced from the same substitution, apparently different because differently expressed.

In the last part of his memoir, the author shews how, from the preceding forms, the expansion of $(a^2+b^2-2\,ab.\cos\theta)^n$, which occurs in physical astronomy, may be determined. He expresses the co-efficients A, B, C, D, &c., $A+B.\cos\theta+C\cos 2\theta+$ &c. being the expanded form, by integrals determined by preceding methods. C, D, &c. are, it is known, dependent on A and B; or in other words, C. D. &c. are expressed by forms that depend for their integration on the integrals of the expressions for A and B. A and B are to be computed, observes Mr. Woddhouse, either by the series involving e, e', e''. &c. or by that involving b, $'b$, $''b$, &c.: the choice as to which series is to be used depends on the ratio of the mean distances of the planets. In the case of Ceres and Pallas, the mean distances of which planets are nearly equal, the series that involves $'b$, $''b$, &c. converges with remarkable rapidity; and, according to our author, the same series ought to be used in the cases of Mercury and Venus, of Venus and the Earth, of the Earth and Mars, of Jupiter and Saturn, and of Saturn and the Georgium Sidus. The other cases of the combination of the planets, two and two, are most commodiously resolved by the series involving e', e'', e''', &c.

We have already, in a slight degree, transgressed our limits, in endeavouring to explain the contents of this paper; which is such as does not ordinarily occur, and is not of very easy comprehension. The memoir itself is long, embracing a great variety and extent of matter; and the author has brought under one point of view many processes and methods, and has shewn their mutual connection and common origin by deriving them from the same principle. The labour of research and study is thus materially abridged, since the student is enabled to direct his attention to that which, in methods and processes, is essential; and he is absolved from the fatiguing duty of encumbering his mind with numerous demonstrations, rather dissimilar in expression than different in method.

Continuation of an Account of the Changes that have happened in the relative Situation of double Stars. By Wm. Herschell, *LL.D. F.R.S.* —The interesting subject of the change in the respective situation

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tion of certain double stars is here resumed; and some parts of the former account are corrected. Such correction became necessary in consequence of the tables, lately published, of observations made by the Astronomer Royal at Greenwich. When Dr. H. investigated, on a certain hypothesis, the cause of the change noticed in the double star Castor, he relied on observations which were at that time the best and most authentic: but the new tables suggest some alteration, or cause a change in the conditions on which the prior investigations were founded. This change is made and discussed in the first part of the present memoir; after which Dr. H. says,

'I shall now proceed to a continuation of my account of the changes that have happened in the relative situation of double stars either in their position or their mutual distance; and, in a subsequent list of them it will be seen that, of 57 changeable double stars which are given, 28 have undergone only moderate alterations, such as do not amount to an angle of 10 degrees. None of them, however, have been admitted, except where the change was at least so considerable, that the micrometer which was used on this occasion could ascertain the change with a proper degree of accuracy. Two of the stars, indeed, have hardly suffered any alteration in the angle of position: but with them it will be found that a change in their distance has been so ascertained as not to admit of any doubt. Thirteen of the stars have altered their situation above 10 degrees, but less than 20. Three stars have undergone a change in the angle of position, of more than 20 and as far as 30 degrees. The six remaining stars afford instances of a still greater change, which, in the angle of position of some of them, amounts to more than 30 degrees; in others, to near 40, 50, 60, and upwards, to 130 degrees.'

The details of this paper, if not very interesting in themselves, afford matter for much curious and important speculation.

ART. IV. *Mr.* Malkin's *Scenery, Antiquities, and Biography of South Wales.*

[*Article concluded from p.* 363.]

WE parted, *pro tempore*, from this instructive tourist in Brecknockshire; and we now rejoin him in the adjoining province of Radnor, where he finds that the English language has made earlier and more extensive inroads than into any other of the bordering counties. We have not, neither has Mr. Malkin, heard of any method of accounting for this fact; and that which he proposes, he afterward himself shews to be insufficient.

The tragic event which closes the history of Welsh independence stands closely connected with a venerable ruin now illustrating

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illustrating this county; an object which animates the pen of Mr. Malkin, and imparts to his narrative that interest which is so much favoured by local associations:

'Aberedwy Castle and its neighbourhood, while closely connected with Cambrian history, afford picturesque objects the most attractive, to fix and detain, as well as engage, the attention. The village is denominated from its situation at the mouth of the Edwy, where that river falls into the Wye. Such situations are favourable both to beauty and grandeur, and in no instance more so, than in the present. The castle is so placed, as in a great measure to command both streams. It belonged to Lhewelin ap Gruffyth, the last independent Prince of Wales, and was his last refuge. It would appear, indeed, as if the Prince's affairs were not in a desperate situation, at the time of his death, and that he might still have been at least troublesome to Edward, but for the treachery of his unworthy countrymen. His friends had, it is true, been overthrown by the king's party, though even there the victory was purchased by the loss of William de Valence, a promising youth, and cousin to Edward. In the mean time, Lhewelin ap Gruffyth had laid waste the country of Cardigan, and spoiled the lands of Rees ap Meredith, who sided with the English in the war. After this exploit, he unfortunately quitted his army with a few friends, and came to Buallt, which he had taken from the Mortimers. In his castle of Aberedwy he designed to have remained in quiet and obscurity for a time, plotting with the neighbouring chieftains the deliverance of their country. As he passed by the banks of the Wye, in his way from Buallt to Aberedwy, he fell in with Edmund Mortimer's party, who, as natives, recognized their lawful prince. Such, however, was their respect for his person, that, though attended only by his esquire, he was suffered to gain the valley of Aberedwy without interruption, and there held his intended conference with the Welsh lords. The enemy had obtained intelligence of his position, and had recovered from the reverential embarrassment into which his first appearance had thrown them. They descended from the hill, but found the bridge over the Edwy, near the mouth, securely kept, and its passage manfully defended, by Lhewelin's adherents. The traitors of Buallt, as they have ever since been denominated, then led the English to a ford, across which they sent a detachment, under the command of Walwyn, a gentleman of Hay, some remains of whose palace are still to be seen there. Walwyn thus gained possession of the prince's retreat, and attacked the defenders of the bridge in the rear, but not till after Lhewelin had made his escape. The snow was on the ground; and the tradition of the neighbourhood is, that he adopted the stratagem of reversing his horse's shoes, to deceive his pursuers; but the smith, to whom he had recourse, betrayed the circumstance to the enemy, so that it was with difficulty he reached a narrow dingle, and there concealed himself. As far as I have been able to learn, the historians do not record the stratagem, through they agree substantially in the relation of the general facts. He was not very far from his main army, to which he was lying in wait to escape, when he heard the noise of horsemen, surrounding

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surrounding the grove that gave him shelter. He was unarmed and disguised; but Adam Francton, I believe, a common soldier, put him to death without knowing the value of his prey. The few friends, who had followed him in his flight, unacquainted with the melancholy catastrophe, stood their ground, and fought boldly for some time, but were at length overpowered by numbers, and compelled to quit the field. The victorious English began plundering the dead of the valuables about their persons, when Francton recognized his victim, whose head he sent to the king at the Abbey of Conway. It was received with savage triumph, and indecently exhibited to the populace on the tower of London.'

Landrindod Wells in this county furnish, if we are correctly informed, medicinal waters of singular efficacy; and if the fact be so, they ought not to have been so slightly mentioned as they are by Mr. Malkin. These healing reservoirs, formed by the hand of nature, claim at least as much notice as interesting ruins, or striking scenes.

On Mr. Malkin's entry into Cardiganshire, the antient fame of its mines leads him to sketch a history of our public policy in regard to those precious sources of wealth. It is to the returns yielded by the mines of the north of this county, that the metropolis is indebted for its abundant supply of water; since the fortune, which Sir Hugh Middleton realized here, he expended in the great undertaking of conducting the new river to London. The final losses and ruin of this public-spirited man are well known.—The profits of these mines may be conjectured, when we are informed that Mr. Bushel, who succeeded Sir H. Middleton in the concern, had not been engaged in it more than ten or twelve years, when he was able to clothe the whole army of Charles I.; and to accommodate his majesty with a loan of 40,000*l.*, though he could scarcely entertain any hope of being ever repaid.

Of the northern part of this county, it is here remarked:

'The whole of this rugged region is one immense reservoir of metallic treasure, awaiting only the spirit of enterprise, and the hand of industry, to draw it into light and use: but enterprise and industry are not the characteristics of this country, except among a few inhabitants of the higher order; and as they are generally men of landed property and ancient family, their attention is turned to agricultural, rather than commercial improvement.'

The general character of this sequestered part of the island is thus drawn by Mr. Malkin:

'Cardiganshire, in a picturesque and romantic point of view, is the most striking county of South Wales. Its northern boundaries are scarcely to be distinguished as to character from Montgomery and Merioneth, on which it borders. It does not possess the unintermitted interest and endless variety of Glamorganshire. We travel over many a dreary

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a dreary mile to reach its beauties: we often find barrenness without grandeur, or cultivation without fertility: but the scenes for exhibition are on a large scale, and in a great style. The journey is not so pleasant, as in the more frequented districts; yet is it on the whole better worth taking. There is nothing in South Wales worse than the worst part of this county; but Havod and the Devil's bridge, will not shrink from a comparison with the finest scenes in North Wales. In one instance particularly is there a resemblance between the counties of Cardigan and Glamorgan; though the circumstance is more striking in the former, because the dimensions of the places where it is observed are more august in magnitude, and therefore more surprising in effect. We are accustomed to speak of the mountains about Havod, the Devil's bridge, the vale of Rydoll, or the vale of Tivy. Yet if we bear in mind the nature and surface of the country, we shall be apt to consider those giddy precipices and stupendous dingles produced rather by a profound sinking of the earth below its common level, than by the elevation and swell of hills above it.'—

'It may likewise be remarked, that the face of the country, where it is not highly picturesque, is very rarely pleasant. The ordinary appearance of things, in their present state, is impoverished and hungry; though much is annually and even daily effected, towards general cultivation and improvement. The banks of rivers, the dingles, the rocks, are either grand or beautiful, and sometimes both: but the flats are for the most part dreary and uninteresting, affording neither objects, particularly gratifying to the eye, nor topics of speculation, with a view to the present moment, of sufficient magnitude to engage the economist. In the latter point of view, Cardiganshire is yet in its infancy; and this very circumstance, considering the hopes it holds out for the future, introduces it with peculiar attractions to the perhaps visionary contemplation of the philosopher. Its capabilities are not easily to be estimated up to their extent; but they must be estimated at a high rate. The resident gentry, who are at present in the occupation of the estates happen in very many instances to be men, whose sentiments and knowledge of the world are not confined, as is too often the case much nearer the metropolis, within the sphere of their own quarter sessions and county politics. These gentlemen begin to be animated with the ambition of becoming improvers. Should their example lead the absentees to return to their own homes, and pursue similar objects, the embryo will soon assume its distinctive shape and features, and push forward its gradual and healthy growth towards maturity. It is a great misfortune to the northern part of the county, that though there are many ancient mansions, few of them are tenanted, owing either to minorities or voluntary absence. A person, who takes a deep interest in the prosperity of a favourite neighbourhood, enumerated to me a list of proprietors, all immediately surrounding that neighbourhood, who draw out of the country twenty five thousand pounds annually, without ever seeing the spot from whence they derive their wealth; consequently, without circulating any part of it either in hospitality, or in the judicious and liberal employment of the poor, rather for the sake of employing them, than for the advantage to be derived from their labours; a duty, which the

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the masters of large property owe to their own situation in society. When it is considered, that this great sum is taken away, not by one overgrown lord, whose absence might be a blessing, but by several land-owners of from one to five thousand pounds a year, a description of persons to form the head-quarters of every thing useful where they reside; when it is considered further, that it is taken from a poor country, where it constitutes no mean proportion of the whole rental, the injury will be duly appreciated, and the fact will account for the retarded influence of the example instituted by the few, but valuable residents. The southern part of the county is better inhabited, and the effect is visible.'

Mr. M. states this part of South Wales to be the strong hold of the antient British language. He enters into an interesting disquisition on the advantages and disadvantages of its retention: but, if knowlege and civilization be beneficial, there can be no doubt that its disuse is to be desired.

The description of the approach to Havod, the residence of Mr. Johnes, from the Rhaiader side, seems to have roused the utmost enthusiasm and brought into exercise the best powers of our traveller.

'The entrance to Havod by this approach is at the shepherd's cot, on the hill to the south. The descent by the foot-path from Pentre Brunant Inn is steep and romantic. The foot-bridge across the stream affords a scene of picturesque and entangled wildness. The hard and milk-white rocks above are worn into a whimsical variety of shapes. The wood around and below hangs its ornamental fringe over the rugged workmanship of nature; while the torrent, foaming between its rough and deepened confines, salutes both the eye and ear in its tumultuous passage down the declivity. The encircling hills, which hem in the low recess on every side, with here and there a single cottage on their brows, impose an aspect of dignified retirement on the whole, while the lower view, penetrating the groves that exquisitely furnish what the name implies, a summer retreat, gives a foretaste of the pleasures to be enjoyed within the domain. It is a characteristic of Havod, that it does not unfold itself at first: there is no approach by which the stranger's admiration is arrested at the gate. The way by the shepherd's cot, leading only round the farm, is not a carriage road. It is the least striking of all the entrances, and therefore perhaps the best. Some of the younger plantations form the only clothing of the hills in this angle; but these promise hereafter to rise into stately woods. For some little way, we encounter the roughness and disorder of an entirely new creation. High as is the ground on which we stand, the ulterior prospect is intercepted by a massy rock of great compass and elevation, protruding its sharp corners and projecting fragments in every direction, almost divested of soil, and but lately a mere object of barren horror. Yet has this hopeless experiment been submitted to the planter's hand, and that with practical success. Every year the hardy firs are extending their bolder shoots, and more richly adorning that ruggedness by contrast, which their utmost luxuriancy can never

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never tame. If such be the character of this rock, as you pass under it on high ground, I need scarcely say how ornamentally it appears, when viewed at various points from the depth of the valley. The road winds round this promontory, and escaping from its obstructions, suddenly opens on such an assemblage of beauty and grandeur, stretched out to the very limits of the perspective, as few spots in this island can equal for surprise and singularity. After having been travelling at the foot of Plynillimon, to find the bed of the Istwid, with its groves and meadows, still far beneath the level on which we are standing, is so unexpected a circumstance, that we rather start, as at the withdrawing of a curtain from before a picture, than believe it a reality. The winding of the river, here foaming impetuously over rocks, there spreading its broad and glassy surface, like a lake; the endless woods, hanging on the mountain sides in long array, sometimes rising to the top, but oftener contrasted by the naked ridge; some planted there by nature, before all attested evidence of human habitation; yet more that owe their luxuriance to the novel and well-directed efforts of their owner; tracts of cultivation, picturesquely circumstanced, breaking out in the distances, and destroying the uniformity;—all these, and a thousand other undescribable beauties, conspire to render the first general view of this place so satisfying, as to set at defiance all hazard of disappointment from the most sanguine anticipation. Nor will even the annual visitor look with a satiated eye at the growing improvements of the scene, whether natural or artificial. The point of view I am describing is still further adorned by the elegant spire of a beautiful little church, embosomed in the highest woods of the opposite hill. This church was finished but a few months before my arrival, and had no existence when the latest description of Havod was written, but now rises into one of its first ornaments, and announces to the stranger a new order of things in the wilds of Cardiganshire. At the time of my summer visit, I had not the advantage of being with the family: but I had been overtaken by appointment on my way, by an intelligent and indefatigable friend, in whose company I had determined to explore, whatever we could discover that was interesting, beyond the route of the customary attendant. We immediately decided to make for the church; and, for that purpose, leaving the broader road, crossed a wooden foot bridge, with one rail, picturesquely overhung with a luxuriant oak, over a deep-bedded, black, and rocky mountain brook. The natural timber here is nurtured and drawn up, under the protection of the warm and sheltered dingle, to a size and growth the most magnificent and flourishing. The ascent to the church through the wood is steep, but the path is secure and smooth. The churchyard may rival, for romantic accompaniments, that of Aberedwy, and for interest, almost Briton Ferry. It commands, through a natural lattice-work of intervening groves, the cultivated valley below, and the naked sheep-walks of the heights opposite. It is difficult to avoid smiling at the pompous devices, by which the country people aim at testifying their respect for the deceased. They sometimes even aspire so high, doubtless by the benefit of clergy, as to tag their vernacular panegyric with a Latin couplet. With respect to the church

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church itself, I shall reserve what I have to say of it, till I come to speak of the establishments at Havod. We descended, by another richly sylvan path, through the hanging wood, and came out at the bottom of the mill cascade, on the mountain brook before mentioned. Here is a simple alcove, which at once affords accommodation to the admirer of nature, if he wishes to prolong his stay, and adds an unobtrusive decoration to a spot, frowning on the higher pretensions of art. The volume of water is rather scanty except in floods; but the fall is so broken by intervening rock and foliage, and the top altogether screened by a huge mass, that its occasional poverty is not disclosed; indeed, after tempests, it forces its way over every obstruction, and tumbles headlong in one enlarged and tremendous cataract. It is most advantageously seen from the building, at the distance of some hundred feet. Between it and the alcove there is a rustic foot-bridge, which composes well in the picture. The pool at the bottom boils impetuously, and the current rushes forward, struggling among rocks, or ingulphed in deep cauldrons, and darkened by the shadows falling from the excavated sides. The whole course of the brook to the river is so steeply inclined, that it furnishes an uninterrupted succession of something approaching to cascades. We now pursued the path through the woods, with occasional spots of pasture and tillage, seen through the opening vistas, till we came to the new carriage road to the house. Here the grand masses of wood, which clothe the hills, the Istwid again roaring obstreperously along its bed, or sometimes sweeping over its broad and pebbly channel, offered themselves more amply to our view at every step. A sudden turn, most judiciously managed, brings the stranger unprepared, almost before the very portico of an elegant mansion, which he had been expecting to have descried from afar. The situation of the house is admirably chosen, commanding the river with its winding vale from the shelving ground on which it stands. The lawn slopes elegantly, but naturally, down to the water; and immediately behind it, rises a most beautifully wooded hill, as if formed for the purpose of giving shelter and an air of repose to a classic residence. Majestic woods, reaching to a great extent along the acclivity, at once protect and adorn the chosen spot; while the sheep-walks on the other side the Istwid, topped by rocks, that thrust their projections among the very clouds, remind us by what a style of nature we are surrounded, in the midst of an artifical paradise.'

Havod has been so often described, that we shall only farther take notice of two particulars which are stated in the present masterly account of it:

'In laying out the grounds, art has been no further consulted, than to render nature accessible. Indeed, nature has in this country so obstinate a will of her own, that she would scarcely suffer a taste, the reverse of that so purely displayed, to interfere with her vagaries. There is one reflection which is particularly pleasing at Havod. Notwithstanding all that has been done, the place is yet in its infancy. Most of the fine residences in England are finished, and many beginning to decay. But Havod, fifty years hence, will stand alone in grandeur, if the plans of its first former are not abandoned by its successors.

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cessors. What we now see, is the fruit of only twenty years. In 1783, it was a wilderness. There was, indeed, an old house belonging to the family; but it was deserted as an untenantable residence, and the very estate held of little account. In 1783, Mr. Johnes determined to settle here. In 1803, Havod was as I have described, and as the numerous friends of the owner can bear witness to having seen it. Hills, planted by the very hands of the present inhabitants, have already risen into opulence of timber; other hills are covered with infant plantations of luxuriant promise; and more of the lofty waste is now marked out, to be called into usefulness and fertility, in a succession of ensuing autumns.'—

'There are other besides agricultural institutions, of a nature scarcely to be expected in such a place. A printing press, with all the necessary materials for carrying on large and extensive works, is established in the grounds. Here Mr. Johnes is printing his translation of Froissart, under his own immediate superintendance. *'

In this vicinity, are the ruins of the Abbey of Strata Florida, or Ystrad Flur.

Mr. Malkin does not pass by Crosswood Park, the property of Lord Lisburne, without paying a due tribute to Sir John Vaughan, its former owner, and the ancestor of the present possessor, who was Lord Chief Justice of the Common Pleas in the reign of Charles II.

In sketching the charms which a village in this neighbourhood derives from the ruins of an antient castle, and from very peculiar scenery which it commands, Mr. M. adds:

'But this sequestered retreat among the mountains has an object of more interest than a mouldered castle, to engage the attention, in Ystrad Mirk school, endowed by the late Edward Richard, a self-taught scholar, who was master of this school for many years. He was a native of this place, and became an eminent Welsh critic, as well as an elegant pastoral poet. He was in habits of close correspondence with Mr. Lewis Morris †, Dr. Philips, and other men of his time, learned in the antiquities of Britain. Mr. Lewis Morris's sons were Mr. Richard's pupils; and it appears from the tenor of the letters which passed between those two gentlemen, that the latter was more critically versed in classical literature, than the generality of those who are engaged in the elementary department of public instruction. The school has maintained its reputation since his time, and occasionally supplies Oxford with some of its students.

'The descent continues from Ystrad Mirk to the plain, through which the Mirk passes. The river is to be crossed, before you reach Pentre Rhydvendiged, or the village of the Blessed Ford, a poor hamlet on the banks of the Tivy, in which it may be for the benefit

* See our last Review, page 337.

† An interesting account of Mr Morris occurs in a preceding page of this work, and we intended to have quoted it: but our limits oblige us to alter our design.

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of some solitary traveller to be informed, that there is a bed. Such an accommodation is not every where to be met with. It forms a new epoch at Pentre Rhydvendiged, the fame of which had reached my ears at some distance; I therefore depended on it, and found it very acceptable at a late hour, though composed of straw. The next morning I went in search of Ystrad Fflur, with its ruined abbey.

'This religious house, of reverend repute in monastic annals, was founded by Rees ap Gruffyth, in the year 1164; but to what order of monks it was devoted, is not precisely agreed among our antiquaries. It immediately became a sort of head-quarters for whatever was civilized, and that was but little, in those turbulent times, and in this uncultivated tract. It had its hospitia and its cells established in every direction. We have already seen that it divided with Conway the pious and honourable charge of depositing and carrying on the records of the principality. The bard and priest were associated in this important office. Several copies of Caradoc Lhancarvan were preserved there, and the successions recorded from the year 1156 till the moment of Lhewelin ap Gruffyth's unhappy fall. At that period, these reverend gownsmen were the bearers of their prince's remonstrance, and interceded with the Archbishops of Canterbury and York for their good offices in relieving him from the insults and oppressions of the Marchers. It was likewise a place of interment for many princes of South Wales. Among others, Owen, the son of the founder, died here in the year 1190. Another son, Gruffyth, who followed his father's steps, and succeeded him in martial prowess, as in government, died on St. James's day, 1202, and was buried here with great solemnity. In 1204, Howel ap Rees was buried by the side of his brother Gruffyth. This Howel, being blind, was slain by the machinations of another brother. But not to enumerate every instance of princely interment at this abbey, Lhewelin ap Jorwerth, in the year 1237, invited all the lords and barons of Wales to Ystrad Fflur, and required from them the oaths of fidelity and allegiance to his son David. Those who now visit the spot will scarcely credit, that the whole country round could furnish accommodation for such a company, or that this could be the theatre of ceremonies, such as are solemnized with us under the awful roof of Westminster. Lhewelin ap Jorwerth was not buried here, but at Conway. During the wars of King Edward the First with the Welsh, this abbey was burnt down; but it was rebuilt, and remained till the dissolution of all such establishments. With respect to its situation, it illustrates the proverbial good taste of the monks, who prevailed with their founder to place them in the best meadow land of a district not abounding in fertile spots, under the protection of mountains not far distant, on the banks of a fresh and rapid stream. It is to be lamented, that a place of so much interest and importance should have been so totally subverted. There is a very fine Saxon arch, of freestone. This, with the trees about it, forms a very picturesque subject; but there is nothing else remaining that deserves notice. There is not even the fragment of a tomb or monument. The present church is built from the ruins of the ancient, but occupies a very small portion of its area. Some part of the cloister and infirmary may be traced,

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but nothing is distinct enough to afford any gratification, except the gateway.'

The instances of Lewis Morris and Edward Richard prove that there are persons among the Welsh, who cultivate their original literature with zeal and industry. We have sometimes heard this people reproached with the absence of all characteristics of this sort: but these instances prove the charge to be without due foundation; and it is probable that many others might be furnished by those who are conversant with the country and its language.

The tradition that the banks of the Tivy were formerly inhabited by beavers is supported by Mr. Malkin. He thinks, with reason, that the laws of Howel Dha, which fix the price of the beaver's skin, are conclusive on the subject; and he indulges in some pleasantry on a mistake in Mr. Pinkerton's Geography, respecting the extent of the navigation of this river:

'I cannot help adding to the errors and oversights of our hasty and ephemeral writers, a positive inaccuracy of Pinkerton, in his geography who states that the Tivy is navigable to Lanbeder. How do the vessels essay their somerset, or fling themselves to the top of the stream, when they encounter the salmon-leap at Kenarth? How do they scud along the twisted channel with all its obstacles of many-formed and ever-varying rocks, between Newcastle in Emlyn and Llandyssul? The fact I apprehend to be, that barges have little occasion to come beyond Pont Llechryd, and that they never have come much further. At present, a dam in the river, to supply a short canal for the purposes of the tin works, effectually precludes all passage beyond the bridge just mentioned. I do not allude to this circumstance for the purpose of cavilling at so valuable a work, but to correct one of those mistakes, which must befal every writer, relying, in a considerable degree, from the nature of his subject, on the information, whether oral or written, of others.'

When Mr. Malkin comes within the confines of Pembrokeshire, his attention is engaged by the English part of the inhabitants, who occupy four out of the seven hundreds, and seventy-four out of the one hundred and forty-four parishes which the county comprizes. The testimony of history to their Flemish origin is uniform; and for the use of the English language by them, Mr. M. accounts by the supposition that they had resided a considerable time in England before their final migration to this district, and that great numbers of Anglo-Normans were intermixed with them.

Relying on certain passages in the Triades, Mr. M. concludes that the original inhabitants of this island were not so completely extirpated as it has been frequently supposed; and he goes so far as even to state that the present English people are much more the descendants of the Britons than of the

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Saxons. That the extirpation was not complete is a notion which is favoured by some glimmerings in original writers, and which is at the same time reasonable. In Kent, and in the west, the hostile nations seem to have coalesced so as to form one people: but to speak generally, so decided is the voice of history, the British and English remains concurring, that we cannot acquiesce in the conjecture of the ingenious author. He informs us that the antient Iberians and Gauls constitute the great mass of the French and Spanish nations at this day; and he notices a fact which furnishes a strong presumption in favour of the supposition, namely, that the present French and Spanish languages are little more than barbarous or greatly corrupted Latin. Let us apply this test;—is the Saxon or Anglo-Norman a corrupted Welsh? Even on the assumption of a general but gradual extermination of the antient population, we are amazed at the paucity of the terms of the old dialect which occur in the language of the successful invaders. Mr. M. maintains that the Welsh gave way to the Saxon, as the Iberian and Gallic dialects did to the Roman. The ascendancy of the Roman tongue in these countries arose from length of time, from the superiority in mental cultivation of those who spoke it, and from the residence of troops and civil administrators. In this case, the language of the victors prevailed: but, when the conquered are the more polished people, their dialect, as in the instances of modern France and Spain, and also in that of China under the Tartarian conquests, retains in a greater or less degree its ground. The antient Britons were a polished people compared with their invaders; and had that coalition taken place which Mr. Malkin supposes, much of the old language might be traced in the antient Saxon and our present Anglo-Norman dialects. The conquerors, too, would have been indebted to the vanquished for their civilization and their conversion to Christianity; which, however, were effected by continental missions. With every disposition towards it, therefore, we do not feel that we can give any countenance to this pleasing hypothesis of Mr. Malkin. If his attention should be farther drawn to the subject, and he should be able to deduce any facts in support of it from original writers, we shall with great satisfaction attend to his researches, and candidly examine a conclusion which our feelings lead us to wish should be well founded.

Mr. M. having indulged in these disquisitions at some length, the page is again devoted to the professed objects of the work. Kilgerran Castle, and the exquisite approach to it along the Tivy from Cardigan, first engage the attention of the tourist; and he ably and happily describes the scene. He finds that, in

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the miserable little town of Kilgerran, lived, during a great part of his days, Thomas Phayer, first a barrister, and then a physician and a man of letters. He was a person of much celebrity in his time; he translated ten books of the Æneid; and, as the author observes, he divides with Surrey and Wyatt the merit of bringing the country acquainted with the concealed treasures of the Mantuan Muse. Phayer was also a contributer to the *Myrroure for Magistrates*, which work was in high repute in the reign of Elizabeth, and furnished many hints to Shakspeare.

The description of St. David's, and of the various curiosities of art and nature to be found in this county, are so well known that we shall pass them over. We find it more difficult to omit the notice of those biographical sketches which a Barlow, a Stepney, and the several members of the Pembroke family present to the interesting pen of Mr. Malkin: but these, and the improvements of Mr. Mirehouse, with his agricultural merits, must give way, to make room for a subject which the parish of Manorbeer has the honour of furnishing:

'Girald, who has been so frequently quoted as an early authority on antiquarian subjects, was born in the parish of Manorbeer. If we may give credit to his own complaint, he was very unfortunate; for the English did not love him, because his mother was a Welshwoman, and the Welsh hated him, because his father was an Englishman. He was descended, on his mother's side, from Rees ap Tudor, and his father was of the Barry family. In his memoirs of himself he is profuse in his instances of early devotion to the church. His uncle, David Fitzgerald, was Bishop of St. David's, and, in all probability, not only assisted in his education, but contributed to determine his choice of a profession. He went to France for improvement about the year 1169, and was made rector of the public schools in Paris. He returned at the end of three years with a high reputation as a rhetorician. He immediately entered the church, and, with a laudable zeal for its welfare, obtained a vice legantine authority to enforce strict discipline, together with the tithes of wool and cheese, all of which had been scandalously neglected in the diocese of St. David's. The Archdeacon of Brecknock, who was old and infirm, found himself unable to comply with the requisitions of his order, by leading a single life; for which reason it was determined that Girald, who from his youth and vigour might be supposed competent to live alone, and unlikely to commit the crime he prosecuted in another, should supply the place of the suspended ecclesiastic. In the year 1176, when Girald was not more than thirty years of age, his uncle the bishop died, and the chapter elected him for the successor; but he declined the appointment, for fear of giving umbrage to the king, who had not been consulted, and was not likely to have approved a man of powerful family interest in the principality. The Archbishop of Canterbury wished the election to have been confirmed; but the very argument of the candidate's great learning and high connexions

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pleaded strongly against the measure in the mind of a jealous monarch. After this question was decided, Girald went to Paris a second time, and was elected professor of canon law in that university; but he refused the honour, and returned to his native country about 1190, when he found the diocese in commotion. The chapter had joined with the inhabitants in driving away Bishop Peter, and the administration was committed to Girald, who seems to have exercised his authority honestly for the reform of abuses. There were many appeals to Rome on contested points; but the quarrel was at length reconciled, and the bishop restored. He was now made chaplain to Henry the Second, and continued in his service for several years, but without any accession of ecclesiastical dignity. He went with Prince John to Ireland as his secretary; but refused two bishoprics, rather than incur obligations to a patron in whom he discovered early marks of hostility to the church. On his return from Ireland he finished his topography of that country, and went to Oxford for the purpose of reciting it in public. This academical exercise lasted three days, during which time he fed the body as well as the mind; for he entertained the poor of the city on the first day, the doctors and eminent scholars on the second, and the ordinary students, the citizens, and the soldiers of the garrison on the third. His progress through Wales, to preach the crusade with Baldwin, has been already noticed; and to this journey we owe the Itinerary, to which subsequent topographers have been very considerably indebted. Having been signed with the cross for the voyage to the holy land, he was obliged to procure a dispensation, that he might stay behind to assist the Bishop of Ely in the government, during the absence of King Richard. During this time he might have had the bishopric either of Bangor or Llandaff, but he rather chose to wait for that of St. David's, to which he was nominated on the vacancy. He had previously given offence to the archbishop, by contending for the exemption of that see from the metropolitan authority of Canterbury; in consequence of which the canons received a mandate to elect the Prior of Llantony Abbey. The cause was referred to Rome, and Girald was appointed spiritual and temporal administrator by the pope during the period of litigation. After some time, growing weary of a hopeless struggle against superior power, he desisted from all further opposition, and resigned his archdeaconry in favour of his nephew. The remainder of his life was principally passed in retirement, and in the pursuit of his literary labours. The leading feature of his character seems to have been a fervent desire at once for the aggrandizement and reformation of the church. In early life, it can scarcely escape the suspicion of having been ambitious or mercenary; but those motives seem to have subsided, and to have given place to purer views. As a writer, his puerilities are not to be endured, if tried by the standard of the present age; but his composition is elegant, and his matter useful, in a degree that could scarcely be expected from the literature and manners of the times in which he lived. There is a very uncandid life of him in the Biographia Britannica; but Dr Kippis has in some measure softened its asperity by his concluding note.'

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Mr. Malkin thus describes the county of Caermarthen:

'The surface of this county in general is hilly; so that the features of the landscape are characterized by the bold and striking. The vales are many of them among the richest of the principality; though they may not perhaps be accompanied with so many picturesque circumstances. The villages near the sea coast are frequently beautiful; but in the north of the county their condition, and that of the solitary cottagers, is the most miserable that can be conceived. The manners of the people are not on the whole so pleasing as in most parts of Wales. There is, particularly at the western extremity, a jealousy and rudeness, which arise from the neighbourhood of people sprung from different families. The adjoining hundreds of Pembrokeshire are English; and I apprehend that there is no part of the principality in which an Englishman is so unpopular. To the north and east the hills rise into mountains. The vale of Tovy is seldom more than two miles in breadth; and it abounds with beauties. The vallies through which the smaller rivers run, are in general retired and pleasing; but their aspect is more uniform than those of Glamorgan and Cardigan. The rural character is not heightened by so many scenes of pleasing wildness. The mountains, which occupy a considerable proportion of the county, are in general black and dreary, with every thing to excite a feeling of wretchedness, and nothing to inspire an idea of sublimity. This observation does not apply to the tract on the north of Llandilo Vawr and Llandovery, but the style of nature there is intirely that of Cardiganshire on which it borders, though the geographical division requires it to be noticed under the head of Caermarthenshire. The climate and fertility of this county are much celebrated, though they are not found to be favourable to wheat. Barley and oats are the most profitable crops, and great quantities of the latter are exported to Bristol. The black cattle and horses bred on the hills, fill all the fairs of the neighbouring district, and contribute in a great measure to the support of the farmers, who depend much on the right of mountain. The woods have suffered greatly of late years; but they are still abundant. There is plenty of limestone and coal in many places.'

Llaugharne, a striking little town in this county, the birth-place of Dean Tucker, calls from our author a neat biographical sketch of that well-known character.

In this neighbourhood, also, is classic ground, rendered interesting by a transaction which ought to command far more veneration than those in which the feats of arms are concerned, and which it is much more pleasing to call to recollection. We cannot forbear accompanying our traveller thither, to receive from him the tale which consecrates the spot. When, all around, nothing was heard but the din of arms, when there seemed to be hardly any other law than that of the strongest, a sage and a hero proclaims the obligations of justice, and places the persons and property of his subjects under the safeguard of an equal and impartial code;

'Another

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'Another excursion is to be made from Llangharne to Whitland, where the vestiges of an ancient abbey are to be traced. Near it is the field where, about the middle of the tenth century, Howel Dha resided in a house formed of white wattles, while he and his legislative assembly from every part of Wales were framing the code of laws which bears his name. This field is at the village of Whitland. The style of common building for private persons must have been simple indeed, when a structure of such materials was deemed sufficient for a prince in the fullest exercise of his sovereign authority. When this great work of legislation was completed, three copies were written, one of which was to follow the prince's court, for his personal guidance, and the other two to be deposited for the use of the provinces, one at the palace of Aberfraw, and the other in that of Dinevowr. Neither did this indefatigable prince rest satisfied even with this solemn enactment. He went to Rome with a company of bishops and learned men, for the purpose of reciting the provisions before the pope, who gave them the sanction of his authority. All causes relating to inheritance of land were to be adjudged by the king or prince in person, who sat on an elevated chair, with an elder on each side, and the freeholders ranged next to the elders. In another division of the court before the king, on a lower seat, sat the chief justice of the principality, with the priest on his right hand; and the ordinary judge of the district on his left. As soon as the court was opened, the plaintiff entered the third division on the left side, and took his station facing the ordinary judge, with his serjeant at his right hand, his advocate behind him, and his champion in the rear of the advocate. The defendant occupied the right side of the court, with his attendants in the same order, and stood facing the priest. The witnesses were placed at the lower end, between the champions of either party, opposite the chief justice. The middle space of the third division was kept clear, that the witnesses might be distinctly seen by the prince and chief judge while they were giving their evidence. When the depositions were concluded, on a signal given by the serjeants, the chief justice, priest, and ordinary judge, retired to frame their verdict for the consideration of the king or prince, who, on receiving it, consulted with the elders, and passed sentence, if the right was clear, or referred it to be tried by the champions, if it was obscure. This court was not held in any hall or covered building, but in the open air.'

The town of Caermarthen occasions Mr. Malkin to notice the tales which occur in antient and modern romances respecting the unrivalled magician Merlin.

Carreg Cennen Castle does not seem to have presented itself at an auspicious moment to the view of Mr. Malkin: since otherwise it could not have failed to produce in his mind impressions corresponding with its sublime singularities; and it is to be regretted that they did not engage more of his contemplation, and employ the best efforts of his pen. There are certain aspects of this ruin, which are not equalled by any thing of the kind that we have ever seen.

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We cannot agree with Mr. Malkin that the vale of Tovy owes any of its celebrity to the poem of Dyer; since its genuine beauties require no adventitious aid, if the traveller be instructed to occupy the proper stations, and to make the necessary variations in the road: but we admit that they are not views adapted for the pencil. Mr. Malkin does not seem to have been directed at Caermarthen to the points of view in its neighbourhood, which exhibit the Tovy vale to the most advantage: but he describes the sweet situation and charming grounds of Dinevor with his usual felicity and discrimination.

This county boasts of a hero in the person of Rice ap Thomas, whose public conduct had a decisive influence on the succession of our kings, and in fixing on the throne monarchs of antient British blood, a race to whom the kingdom owes its principal blessings. To Henry VII. Britain is indebted for the reduction of feudal rule, and the ultimate acquisition of Scotland. Henry VIII. held in his hands the balance of Europe, and freed the country from the domination of Rome; and the many glories and blessings of Elizabeth's reign it is needless even to intimate. The grandson of this benefactor of Henry VII. was attainted by that king's son, and his immense possessions were confiscated.

Mr. Malkin having entered Wales by Glamorganshire, and traversed its inland and northern parts, again re-enters it, and, directing his course along the coast, closes a survey of the southern division of the principality which does great credit to his general attainments and accomplishments; and for which every reader who is curious in this pursuit, or who wishes to see the same tract of country to the best advantage, will feel greatly obliged to him.

It is observed, not less justly than candidly by Mr. M. that, though many of the productions of his predecessors on the same subject have been ingenious, they have been hastily compiled; and he tells us that he would not have submitted the present work to the public, had he met with any author who had paid the same attention to South Wales which Mr. Pennant bestowed on its northern divisions. The performance of Mr. Malkin will not appear to disadvantage by the side of that of the respectable Naturalist and Antiquary.

We cannot speak in very high terms of the engravings which accompany this volume. An Index is wanting.

ART.

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Art. V. *Euclidis Datorum Liber, cum Additamento; Necnon Tractatus alii ad Geometriam pertinentes. In usum Juventutis Academicæ. Curavit et edidit* Samuel, *Episcopus Asaphensis.* 8vo. 6s 6d *Oxonii, è Typographeo Clarendoniano, Londini, apud* Payne & M'Inlay. 1803.

This is the third tract, in point of time, edited by Bishop Horsley for the use of the young mathematicians of Oxford*. Its contents are Euclid's Data; a Selection of Problems, with their Geometrical Solutions; a Book on Spherics; the Quadrature of the Circle according to Archimedes, with Eutochius's Commentaries; the Sieve of Eratosthenes, through which all but prime Numbers pass; a Tract on prime and composite Numbers; and the treatise of Keil on the Nature and Arithmetic of Logarithms: to which are added, by the Right Rev. Editor, Notes and an Appendix.

At the end of the Appendix to the book of the Data, the Bishop subjoins a scholium; in which he concisely, and with considerable discrimination, marks out the respective provinces of Geometry and Algebra. The latter science, he thinks, is an incompetent, or at least an incommodious instrument in the solution of problems, into which the situation and inclination of lines enter as conditions:

'*Linearum vero* (says he) *plurium ut et partium ejusdem curvæ, relatio duplex est. Quantitate enim distinguuntur et situ. Algebra interea in eo versatur unice, ut meras quantitatis relationes expendat; quas optimo certe compendio indagatur, et ex notis ignotas mira facilitate promit. Meras autem dico quantitatis relationes, quæ ex situ nullo modo pendent. Situs linearum varios dignoscere, et cum alias omnes tum et ipsius quantitatis relationes, si quæ, ex situ oriundæ, vel lineis ipsis, vel figuris, quas lineæ claudunt, inter cedant, explorare, id, ni fallor, Geometriæ munus est. In problematibus autem plerisque, solutio eorum ex utrâque relatione pendet; situs dico et magnitudinis; et compendiosius saltem ex utrâque junctim, quam ex hâc vel illâ seorsim elicienda est.*'

After this impartial statement, the R. R. writer proceeds to remark that, in mere calculation, many circumstances of position, flexure, &c. are neglected; so that, after much perplexing operation, a result is obtained, from which either no construction, or none that is convenient, can be formed. This is partly true. If a construction be required, and the inclination, position of lines, &c. enter as conditions into the problem, then, if the problem be put into equation, merely by the employment of symbols x, y, a, &c. denoting lines, it may happen that, after much algebraical operation, a result may be obtained without an obvious mode of construction:—but then we

* See Rev. Vols. xxxvi. and xlv. N. S.

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should say, the problem is unskilfully put into equation. Little, however, can be understood from these general statements; and the learned Bishop, very properly, for the proof of his assertions, and for the instruction of his readers, proceeds to the geometrical resolution of certain select problems. The first three of these, and the fifth, are taken (as to their enunciation) from the *Arithmetica Universalis* of Newton, and these are the 15th, 20th, 22d, and 18th problems. He then adds:

'SCHOLION.

'*Quinque horum Problematum, primum et secundum, tertium item cum ultimo, ex iis sunt, quæ Newtonus, artis Algebraicæ vires ostentans, in Arithmeticâ suâ Universali Algebraice resoluta dedit. Resolutiones autem illas Newtoni Algebraicas cum hisce nostris Geometricis si quis contulerit, is demum, ut opinor, sentiet, Analyticè, quâ veteres usi sunt, quanta sit præstantia. In Algebrâ illud maxime vitiosum est, quod concinnatâ æquatione, vel etiam reductâ, quânam ratione Problemati Geometrice satisfaciendum sit, quærendum nihilominus restat. Quandoquidem eorum, quæ in ultimâ æquatione datorum formam præ se ferunt, constructionem Geometrice concinnare, longe majoris plerumque opus est vel artis vel ingenii, quam quod ultimo quæsitum est Algebraice eruere, ex simpliciter, ut ita dicam, datis.*'

Again, after having commented on the 18th, the Bishop remarks:

'*Illud etiam animadvertisse non inutile erit: Newtonum in hoc problemate, ut in aliis, multa adhibuisse an calculum promovendum quæ ex intimâ Geometriâ ei petita sunt. Quod si aliter egisset, major ei subeundus esset calculorum labor, et æquatio ultima intractabilior prodiisset. Ut vel uno hoc exemplo intelligendum sit, quam præposterum revera et perversum sit illud magistrorum præceptum, cujus supra meminimus, cum jubent Geometricis neglectis, ad prima et simplicissima principia revocare omnia. Quasi ad subtillima Geometriæ problemata, præter notionem illam quam maxime communem, totum suis partibus æquari, et auream quam in puerorum scholis vocant regulam, aliasque trivialis Arithmetices operationes, nihil amplius desideraretur. Insulsi plane homines et deridendi, utut magnifice sese efferant, cum modo ipsorum Algebrâ quis instructus fuerit, vel ipsius quadragesimæ septimæ primi levem futuram fuisse jacturam existimant, si mortalibus nunquam innotuisset. De istiusmodi deliramentis interea, quid revera statuendum est, ediscat aliquis vel primi nostri problematis exemplo, quod Newtono in Arithmeticâ Universali decimum quintum est; si nostra scilicet resolutio Geometrica cum priori earum, quas duas Newtonus tradidit, conferatur. Ubi æquatio quæ primum prodit summo artifici, speciem triangulo consulto dissimulanti, ad octavam dimensionem incognitæ x ascendit, ope autem divisoris compositi in biquadraticam deprimitur, et biquadratica radicem extrahendo in quadraticam. Hæc autem Newtonus vires Algebræ, sicut diximus, ostentans et consiliis iis, quibus Librum de Arithmeticâ Universali edere constituit, solummodo obtemperans. Non quod indoctam illam, impeditam et caliginosam indaginis viam præ aliâ omni insistendam esse judicavit. Cum e contrario methodum aliam et audaciorem ipse ut plurimum usurpaverit, et nulla non subsidia sibi ex Geometriâ de industria conquisiverit. Quinetiam*

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tium multa vel in ipso illo Arithmeticês Universalis libro Geometrice resoluta dedit, neglectis omnino et posthabitis, quæ tamen facile ei adhibere licuit, omnibus artis Algebraicæ, quotquot sunt, admiiiculis.'

In the 15th problem, to which Bishop Horsley here alludes, it is required to find a triangle ABC, whose three sides, AB, AC, BC, and perpendicular CD, are in geometrical progression. Newton puts $AC=x$, $BC=a$; whence, from the conditions, there results an equation,

$$x^8 - 2a^2x^6 - a^4x^4 + 2a^6x^2 + a^8 = 0$$

or $(x^4 - a^2x^2 - a^4)^2 = 0$.

Now if this algebraical solution of the problem be the best that can be exhibited, beyond all doubt the Right Reverend author has made out his point, since his geometrical solution exceeds it in point of perspicuity and elegance, many degrees:—but a person may ask, has the illustrious Newton skilfully translated the conditions of the problem into algebraical language? or has he employed the most appropriate symbols and expressions? The language of algebra is not restricted to the mere symbols x, y, a, &c. with their powers, and combinations. It may indeed, by definition, be limited to a scanty pittance of powerless phrases: but, in a comparison between the algebraical or analytical method, (that which employs general characters,) and the geometrical, (that which employs lines, &c.) the language of the former ought to be considered as consisting not only of the simple characters, but of all those expressions that occur in logarithms, in the algorithm of sines and tangents, and in the fluxionary calculus. In the case before us, if we employ the algorithm of sines and tangents, a very simple solution may be obtained: for then it immediately appears that sin. $ACB=1$; and, if angle CBA be called θ, that cos θ^2 = sin. θ, and consequently that sin. $\theta = \sqrt{\frac{5-1}{2}}$. This solution is very simple, and by no means embarrassed with long and intricate operations; and if a construction were demanded, (though a construction is not required by the enunciation of the problem) it might easily be afforded. The use of the symbols sin, θ, &c. cannot be properly said to render the above method of solution geometrical. In Newton's solution, the problem is put into algebraical language by means of the 47th of the elements; and indeed, in this as in all cases, we must attend to the nature and properties of the subject of investigation, and thence deduce equations.—We think, then, that the learned editor has not acted very fairly in contrasting an elegant geometrical solution, which his own certainly is, with a tedious and embarrassed algebraical solution, such as that of Newton must be acknowleged

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acknowleged to be: but, as we have already said, a simple algebraical solution may be exhibited; and, in fact, by attending to the admonition of the great author himself;

"*Et hæc* (says Newton in his *Arith. Univ*) *de solutione problematum in rectilineâ Geometriâ: nisi forte operæ pretium fuerit annotâsse preterea, quod cùm anguli, sive positiones linearum per angulos expressæ statum questionis ingrediuntur, angulorum vice debent adhiberi lineæ aut linearum proportiones, tales nempe quæ ab angulis datis possunt, per calculum Trigonometricum, descirari; aut a quibus inventis anguli quæsiti, per eundem calculum prodeunt, hoc est, quæ se mutuo determinant.*"

After the *Circuli Dimensio* by Archimedes, comes a short tract called the Sieve of Eratosthenes: a title given metaphorically to a method of finding prime numbers. Hitherto, no formula has been exhibited, comprehending all prime numbers, yet the subject has engaged the attention of great mathematicians. Fermat imagined that the formula $2^n + 1$, (n a power of 2) arithmetically expounded, according to the several values of n, gave only prime numbers. Euler, however, pointed out the defect of that formula. This indefatigable mathematician, who invaded every province and department of science, has considered the subject of prime numbers in three memoirs, in the *Novi Commentarii:* yet, notwithstanding the resources of his analytic art, he has not afforded a method of forming prime numbers, nor has he rendered Fermat's formula correct. The method of Eratosthenes is plain and simple. Excepting the number 2, no even number is a prime number, all of which are contained among the odd numbers. Every number, not a prime, is a multiple of a prime; and the odd numbers are therefore formed of prime numbers, and the multiples of prime numbers. In the series of odd numbers, arranged according to their order, the multiples of the same prime number are distant from each other by equal intervals: thus, between 3 and 9, 9 and 15, 15 and 21, &c. two odd numbers, not multiples of 3, intervene; and between 4, two successive multiples of n, ($n-1$) odd numbers not multiples of n, intervene. Hence, to find the prime numbers, arrange the odd numbers, as 3. 5. 7. 9. 11. 13. 15. 17. 19. 21. 23. 25. 27, &c. First eliminate, (beginning after 3,) every third number; or, in other words, every multiple of 3. Next, after 5, eliminate every fifth number, that is, every multiple of 5, and so on: then what remain, or do not pass through this arithmetical *sieve*, are prime numbers.

This method is certainly simple: but, in our opinion, it bears no strong marks of great ingenuity or sagacity: nor does it merit what the learned Bishop has said of it in his concluding sentence:

'Quin

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'*Quin et illud te* (*Lectorem*) *monitum esse velim, inter veterum mathematicorum inventa vix in aliud quodvis te incidere posse quod vel magis artificiose, vel magis ad utilitatem* (*in iis saltem quæ calculo indaganda sunt*) *usquam excogitatum est,*'

The last tract is that of Keil on logarithms, to which the R. R. editor has added some useful notes. Indeed his labours are seldom otherwise than beneficial; and, during the perusal of this and the preceding tracts, we have had frequent occasion for admiring his learning and acuteness: but, in general, he is too dogmatical and oracular, too energetic for the occasion. When the matter is neither very dignified nor very important, his words are swelling and stately: undisputed truths are enforced with superfluous vigour; and trivial emendations are announced as if they were important discoveries. The style in which Newton explained the system of the world was simple and modest; and had he succeeded in emending, for instance, an arithmetical process in logarithms, he would silently have attributed the discovery either to hints suggested by books, or to his natural sagacity, rather than to an illumination from heaven, and the favour of propitious deities.

ART. VI. *Aubrey:* a Novel. By R. C. Dallas, Esq. Author of *Percival.* 12mo. 4 Vols. 18s. Boards. Longman and Co.

IT is too often our lot, in reviewing this species of composition, to be impelled by a sense of duty, and a love of truth and virtue, to protest in severe terms against the violation, not only of nature, but of morality and decency. In the present instance, however, we are happy to inform our readers that, far from finding any occasion to execute so unwelcome a task, we here announce to them a very agreeable and instructive novel, in which the incidents themselves afford a lesson both improving and entertaining, and the sentiments are always founded on just perceptions of reason and nature. We must add, indeed, that if we examine this tale with the severity of a critic's eye, we shall be able to point out certain inaccuracies; and particularly in the fourth volume, the discovery of Lord Sudley's relationship to Edmund, as well as the ghosts of the castle, may be considered as unnecessary appendages to the story. We shall not, however, enlarge our remarks on any deviations of this sort; which, as we observed in our review of a former performance by this author, (See M. R. April 1802.) "appear light faults when weighed against the importance of the end designed," and pass unseen amid its moral attractions, like the inequalities of the road where the prospect is bright and pleasing.

Aubrey,

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Aubrey, the hero of this tale, is a clergyman, who enters into life and marries early; with an unsuspecting, honest, and generous disposition, but without a sufficient share of worldly prudence, or a due attention to the regulation of his domestic affairs. Hence he is involved in various difficulties; and from the disappointed expectations of a rich inheritance, together with the false promises of powerful friends, he is obliged to struggle through many years of embarrassment. Circumstances, however, ultimately turn out as successfully as he could wish; and after much experience of a deceitful world, Aubrey and his family are taught to value and enjoy the comforts of a well regulated and rational establishment in life. The story which is introduced, of Aubrey's friend, Mr. Cowper, is extremely interesting; and we shall extract a passage, in which he relates a season of his infatuation with an artful female in Portugal, and was on the eve of robbing his father's chest to supply the extravagance of her demands on his purse.

"In bidding me good-night, I thought my father did it with a peculiar emphasis; but I again ascribed my perceptions to the suspicions of conscience. I shall never forget the war of emotions that raged in my mind when I was alone. The doubt of my father's knowledge of my marriage, his kindness, his dejection, his mystery, his secret, all raised a host of feelings to form ramparts of virtue around the chest; and, at first, I believed them impregnable. I resolved to relinquish the design. I locked up the false key and counters in my desk, I undressed, lighted my lamp, put out my taper, went into bed, and shut my eyes. I soon, however, found that sleep was out of the question: the remembrance of my father's conversation by degrees faded away, and gave place to that of Donna Seraphina. The latter part of it revived in my imagination with double force, and brought with it an irresistible assemblage of charms: the ramparts fell before them one after another. I argued that my marriage must be unknown to my father, as he would not have continued to hoard his treasure had he been apprized of it; his kindness was a pledge of his forgiveness if he discovered me; his dejection I had observed upon my arrival: whatever his mystery consisted in should remain unexplored, and his secret should be respected: for I would do nothing more than change the moidores of two bags for counters, and that with an expedition that should not give me time to observe any thing besides in the chest. Thus were the fortifications destroyed; but not without a struggle, nor till Donna Seraphina's image had so renewed my intoxication that I would have sacrificed my life for her.

"The chest stood in a large light closet, situated between my father's room and that which I occupied, having a door into each: in this closet he wrote and kept his papers. A common brown wainscot separated it from either room. I rose gently and threw my wrapping gown about me. As I lighted my taper, the clock of the neighbouring convent struck three: the sound of the first stroke so startled me that I had nearly put out both the taper and lamp. The tremor it produced

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produced continued upon me; I shook every limb. On opening the door of my chamber which communicated with the closet, I perceived that my father's door stood ajar: I listened, and heard him distinctly breathe, as if he were in a sound sleep. Having taken the key and the counters from my desk, I tottered slowly and barefoot into the closet. I advanced to the chest, and, setting my taper down on a chair that stood by it, I attempted to apply the key, but was some moments before I could collect a sufficient degree of steadiness in my hand to succeed. At length I fixed it, and, turning it as softly as I could, raised the ponderous lid. Guess my surprise when I found that the treasure I wanted was secured by a second massy door. My surprise was momentary; it yielded to a guilty joy, on seeing the key lying on it. To the key was tied a broad label, which I no sooner took up than these words struck my eyes: *Charles, I pity you! The contents of this chest are now all your own! the robbery you intended is converted into legal possession by my death! Look round!* I stood bent and aghast; Seraphina and all her charms vanished; horror took possession of my soul. "Look round!" thundered through my ear, in my father's voice, from a corner of the room. I involuntarily obeyed, and as my eye caught his figure at his chamber-door, he raised a vial to his mouth. Wild as I was, his purpose flashed upon my thought, and I made a spring to dash the poison from his lips; but, instead of effecting my design, I fell senseless at his feet.'

This scene is well depicted; and the arrival of Cowper afterward in England, returning in penitence to seek his long forsaken wife at the parish in which they once fondly resided together, will affect every reader of sensibility.

"These reveries lasted till the chaise was near Thornbury, when I stopped the post boy to desire him to drive through a lane, by which he might avoid the town, and to put me down at the stile which led over the fields to Melford. When he stopped opposite to it, and opened the chaise door, my mind and feelings were so occupied by the recollections it awakened, that I could hardly give the little attention that was necessary to settle with him. By the warmth of the post-boy's thanks, I imagine I greatly overpaid him: but I was sitting on the stile where I saw Fanny come from the opposite one with her wooden bowl and bottle of water, her white towel and piece of soap: where she first perceived that my arm was broke, shed tears, and blessed me. I sat no longer, however, than while I took out my purse and discharged the chaise. I now trod the foot path where I saw her insulted, where she caught me by the arm, and besought my protection; where I fought her battle, and lost my Virgil; where I first admired her beauty and the native grace of her virtuous emotions, while the features of her face and the posture of her person were governed by gratitude mingling with self-reproach. With the loss of my Virgil I associated the finding of it, the artless confession of my Fanny's love, her exclamation of 'What! your virtuous wife!' the first kiss I stole; and one happy idea ushering in another, my imagination had proceeded to the wedding-day, the whole village decked in white and gay clothes, following us to the altar, when I

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was suddenly roused from my rapturous trance by the sound of the village church bell.

"The air was still, the sky serene; it was a Sabbath evening in the middle of June; I was rising the slope, at the top of which the view of the village opens on the sight. I now wondered that I had met none of the villagers strolling: the thought oppressed my mind; and the melancholy solemn sound of the bell, which I soon perceived was tolling the forsaken frame of some departed spirit to its grave, inspired a gloom, which I endeavoured in vain to disperse by thinking of joy and Fanny. Reaching the summit of the ascent, I saw the vivid images of my wedding scenes, which I had been so raptorously contemplating, completely contrasted by a long procession of mourners, blockading the avenue to the church. All the inhabitants seemed to be gathered together: except in the line of this gloomy train, not a human creature was to be seen; and, though the trees and fields wore their finest verdure, a universal dulness pervaded the country; a general silence, like that of night, prevailed, rendered more awful by the solemn interruption of the loud, single, sound of the funeral bell, returning on the ear after long and equal pauses. It was a scene to damp the most ardent joy. The contagion of sorrow seized my heart: the general affection, evidenced by the general attendance, showed the loss to be no common one; it might be the venerated Grey himself, whose soul had flown to Heaven. I was confirmed in this opinion by the full concourse of his parishioners. Sure of finding my Fanny among them, I resolved to join them. My clothes were indeed unsuitable to the occasion; but, to the spirit of Grey, my heart would appear in mourning: yet even that could not be requisite, for he was removed to a state of sainted bliss. I might mourn justly for his flock, to whom he had been a true shepherd; but for him I should rejoice. Dwelling on his general virtues, and recalling to mind his particular goodness to myself, I approached with double speed. As the bier entered the western door of the church, I was near enough to distinguish the faces of my friends; and, as I neither saw Fanny nor the Cowsels, I imagined they had already gone in. I flew to the small door that opened into the south aisle: I there overtook a lad who knew me well; but, instead of replying to my question respecting the person whose funeral it was, he stared at me with surprise, and ran away to another door. His conduct alarmed me. I entered the church trembling. Grey himself was in the reading-desk. My heart now palpitated violently: my eyes sought Fanny every where: the people, crowding the pews, gazed at me with consternation. I saw Cowsel, his son, and daughter, standing on one side of the body, and Mrs. Grey with two ladies on the other; but I could see Fanny no where. The most horrid thought that could arise now took possession of my brain. I forced my way to the bier: 'Where,' cried I, seizing Cowsel by the arm, 'where is Fanny?' He turned from me without a reply; and at that moment I heard Grey's voice raised to pronounce emphatically: *Thou hast set our misdeeds before thee; and our secret sins in the light of thy countenance.* It spoke the truth to my frantic soul; and, at the same instant, I cast my eyes on the plate of the coffin, which answered

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answered my inquiry; it answered me—*Here she is; you shall behold her no more!* I remember that I grasped the coffin in my arms; I remember that I again heard the thunder of Gery's voice cry, 'Take that madman away:' I remember no more."

We shall look forwards with pleasure to the perusal of some future instructive novel, from the same pleasing and impressive writer.

ART. VII. *Memoirs of the Literary and Philosophical Society of Manchester. Vol. V. Part II.* 8vo. pp. 480. 6s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1802.

WE much regret that circumstances have concurred to delay thus long our account of this publication: for we consider the present half volume as fully equal, in the importance and originality of its papers, to any which has hitherto proceeded from this respectable society. In now discharging our duty by reporting its contents, we shall, according to former custom, arrange them under the classes of *Philosophical* and *Miscellaneous*.

PHILOSOPHICAL PAPERS.

Experiments and Observations to determine whether the Quantity of Rain and Dew is equal to the Quantity of Water carried off by the Rivers and raised by Evaporation; with an Inquiry into the Origin of Springs. By Mr. John Dalton.—The object of this paper is to ascertain whether the water, that falls on the earth in the form of rain and dew, be sufficient to supply the springs and rivers, and likewise to afford the quantity that is raised by evaporation. In order to determine this point, the four following subjects are successively investigated: '1. Of the quantity of rain and dew. 2. Of the quantity of water that flows into the sea. 3. Of the quantity of water raised by evaporation. 4. Of the origin of springs.'

The quantity of rain can only be determined by taking the mean of the observations, which have been made in different places; after having given due allowance for any peculiarity of situation, that may reasonably be supposed to affect the atmosphere in this particular. The author has collected a great number of experiments; and he finds the average to be 35.2 inches, but this he conceives to be too considerable for the whole of England and Wales, because the majority of observations have been made in what are acknowleged to be the most rainy parts of the island: he therefore fixes the annual mean at 31 inches. The quantity of water that falls in the form of dew is not so easily defined:—Mr. D. estimates it at

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5 inches, but it must be confessed that this calculation is built on very slender foundation. By the addition of these two quantities, it appears that about 36 inches of water are annually deposited on the surface of the earth in England and Wales, amounting to nearly 15 thousand millions of tons in weight. This amazing body is carried off by rivers, and by evaporation; and hence the author is led to the second division of his subject, the quantity of water which flows into the sea.

The data on which Mr. Dalton proceeds in this part of his investigation are, in a great measure, hypothetical. He assumes, as the basis of his calculation, an estimate which is probably itself not very accurate, formed by Dr. Halley, relative to the quantity of water which flows through the Thames at Kingston bridge. The space of country, from which the waters of the Thames are derived, is compared with the extent of the other rivers in the kingdom; and thus an attempt is made to arrive at some conclusion respecting the aggregate mass of water discharged into the sea: the author imagining that the Thames carries off about one-ninth of the whole. This quantity, however, amounts only to about 13 inches of water from the whole surface of England and Wales; so that 23 inches still remain.

To determine how much of the rain is dissipated by evaporation, Mr. Dalton has recourse to the experiments of Dr. Dobson, Dr. Hales, and Bishop Watson; to which he adds some that were performed by himself. From comparing them together, he thinks that he is justified in concluding that the evaporation is adequate to removing from the surface of the earth, what is not expended on the rivers; and conversely, that the rain and dew in this country are equivalent to the quantity of water carried off by evaporation, and by the rivers.

On the origin of springs, three opinions have been entertained:

'1st. That they are supplied entirely by rain and dew.

'2d. That they are principally supplied by large subterranean reservoirs of water.

'3d. That they derive their water originally from the sea, on the principle of filtration.'

M. de la Hire attempted to prove by experiment, that the rain and dew are not sufficient to afford an adequate supply for springs: but Mr. Dalton points out some circumstances which M. de la Hire disregarded; and he concludes that, until some more decisive objections can be raised, we may still adhere to what is certainly the most obvious and natural supposition, that springs owe their origin to water received by the surface of the ground.

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This paper cannot be considered as, by any means, deciding the points which are discussed in it: but the deficiencies may be principally attributed to an absolute want of facts, to serve as bases for our reasonings.

Experiments and Observations on the Power of Fluids to conduct Heat: with Reference to Count Rumford's 7th Essay on this Subject. By the Same.—The unexpected results of the experiments detailed by Count Rumford in his 7th Essay, and the simplicity and originality of the experiments themselves, naturally attracted very general attention. We believe it to be now commonly admitted, that his position respecting the manner by which heat propagates itself in fluids is true to a considerable degree: but many philosophers, and Mr. Dalton among others, have conceived that the Count is not warranted in the extent to which he has carried it.

Mr. D. enters on the subject by endeavouring to ascertain the degree at which water is incapable of farther condensation; and this, in conformity with the opinion of Sir Charles Blagden and others, he has fixed at 42¼°. He has, however, discovered a circumstance of great singularity, in connection with this question; for he finds that, if water be cooled below 32° without freezing, it will expand equally, for the same number of degrees, either above or below the point of greatest condensation.

In controverting Count Rumford's hypothesis, Mr. D. undertakes to prove, by direct experiment, that heat is capable of being propagated downwards in a fluid. This he attempts to accomplish, by half-filling a glass vessel with water, at the temperature of the atmosphere; carefully introducing above it, a body of water several degrees higher, in such a manner that the two portions of fluid may remain separate from each other. Thermometers were placed in the different parts of the vessel; and by the effects produced on them, he concluded that the upper layer of water communicated a small quantity of its heat to the cold water below. We think, however, that the experiments are scarcely decisive: for, notwithstanding all the accuracy of the operator, some degree of agitation would be produced by pouring the one fluid on the other: but our principal objection is founded on the power which the vessel itself possesses, of conducting a portion of heat from the upper to the under stratum of water; a circumstance conceived by the author to be too unimportant to be estimated, but which we apprehend may have a material influence on the results.

Since the publication of this essay, a more correct attempt to controvert Count Rumford has been made by Dr. Murray of

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Edinburgh; who, in order to obviate the inaccuracy arising from the conducting power of the vessel, employed a hollow cylinder of ice.

Experiments on the Velocity of Air issuing out of a Vessel in different Circumstances; with the Description of an Instrument to measure the Force of the Blast in Bellows, &c. By Mr. Banks, *Lecturer in Natural Philosophy.*—The author announces the object of this inquiry in the following proposition:

'If an elastic fluid is generated in a given vessel, or any way contained in it, and at liberty to issue out of the said vessel through a given aperture, to determine the resistance which the vessel meets with from its action, or the power which it has of communicating motion to the vessel, as in a sky rocket, Saddler's steam-engine, &c.'

His conclusions are, that a pressure equal to 33 feet of water will expel air out of the aperture of a pair of bellows, with a velocity of 845 feet per second; one foot of water will produce a velocity of 147$\frac{1}{4}$ feet; and one inch, of 42 feet per second, equal to 20 miles in an hour. The instrument described seems adequate to the purpose for which it is designed; and, if we mistake not, an apparatus constructed on a similar principle is not unfrequently applied to the steam-engine, to measure the elastic force of the steam.

Observations on the nervous Sytems of different Animals; on original Defects in the nervous System of the Human Species, and their Influence on Sensation and Voluntary Motion. By John Hull, *M.D.*—In a former work, Dr. Hull enumerated some peculiarities in the structure of the fœtus, when either the number or the proportion of some of its parts was greater than the natural standard; in the present essay, he proposes to give an account of certain defects that have been noticed, and particularly defects in the nervous system. After some remarks on the structure of the brain and nerves, in the different classes of animals, arranged according to the plan proposed by M. Cuvier, he lays down what have been termed the laws of the nervous system, as far as they respect sensation and voluntary motion. Though there be a variety of facts which seem to demonstrate that the brain is the exclusive seat of sensation, in man and the more perfect animals, yet it is still undetermined whether the *Sensorium Commune* resides in the whole of the brain, or in any particular portion of it. There are some very striking cases on record, which shew that the brain may experience an almost total destruction of its parts, without either sensation or voluntary motion being impaired, provided that the injury is gradually produced.

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In the present paper, Dr. Hull confines himself to the defects which have been noticed in the nervous system of the human subject; and he enumerates several instances of this description, some of which fell under his own observation, or that of his friends, and the remainder are quoted from the most respectable authorities. Beginning with an instance in which a fœtus was born, wanting a considerable part of the brain, he proceeds to others in which the whole of the brain, and the spinal marrow, were defective; and lastly in which no trace of any nerve could be discovered. The most remarkable case is one related by Dr. Heysham of Carlisle, in which a female infant lived for six days, had the power of deglutition and the voluntary motion of the limbs, and, as far as could be judged, enjoyed the use of the external senses: yet the whole of the upper part of the bones of the cranium was wanting; and on examination after death, 'not the least appearance of *cerebrum*, *cerebellum*, or any medullary substance whatever,' could be discovered.

It is certainly not easy to reconcile these singular deviations from the established order of nature, with the opinions generally adopted on the subject; and if we conceive that the nervous energy is essential to the irritability of the muscles, and consequently to the power of the heart and arteries, we are obliged to conclude that it may subsist independently of the brain, of the spinal marrow, or even of any nerves, sufficiently large to be visible to the eye.

Experiments and Observations on the Heat and Cold produced by the Mechanical Condensation and Rarefaction of Air. By John Dalton.—That a thermometer is raised some degrees above the temperature of the atmosphere, by being placed in a receiver, the air of which is suddenly condensed,—and that, on the contrary, it sinks when the air around it is suddenly removed,—are facts sufficiently well known, though hitherto not very satisfactorily explained. The most unaccountable circumstance is the rapidity of the operation; which has induced some persons to suppose that it could not depend on a change of temperature, but that it must be effected by an alteration in the capacity of the bulb of the thermometer, in consequence of the increase or diminution of the pressure exercised on it. This supposition is, however, absolutely overthrown by an experiment, in which the same rise and fall of the mercury took place, although inclosed in an open tube. As this circumstance seemed to prove that the phænomenon did in fact depend on a real change of temperature, Mr. Dalton conceived that he might account for the suddenness of the effect by sup-

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posing that a much greater change of temperature was produced, than that which was indicated by the thermometer, but that it subsisted only for a very short space of time. His idea was strongly countenanced by finding that, when two thermometers of differently sized bulbs were placed under the receiver, that which had the smallest bulb was considerably more affected than the other; and he also observed that, when the thermometer was brought in contact with the sides of the glass, or the pump plate, the rise and fall of the mercury were less than when it was freely suspended in the centre. He then attempts to ascertain the precise degree of heat which has been produced; and by observing at what rate a thermometer of known dimensions cooled, after having been raised to a given degree, he concludes that 'an increase of temperature of 50° is produced in the medium within the receiver for 3¼ seconds.' We are disposed to admit the general fact on which Mr. Dalton attempts to explain this subject: but it appears to us that his experiments are not sufficient to enable him to determine the exact degree of heat produced in this case.

Dr. Darwin, who had previously paid considerable attention to this phænomenon, supposed that the aqueous vapour existing in the air had a principal share in the process. In order to ascertain this point, Mr. Dalton performed the experiment with air at different temperatures, assuming that the cold air must contain a smaller quantity of vapour. He found that the rise and fall of the thermometer were more considerable in a cold, frosty atmosphere, than in the warm, moist air of a dyer's stove; and hence he infers that it cannot depend on aqueous vapour, because the effect is less in heated air, which, according to his hypothesis, contains the greatest quantity of this vapour. We are, however, much inclined to doubt the accuracy of this method of reasoning; for we consider it as not improbable that the cold air might contain a greater quantity of water dissolved in it, than the moist warm air of the dyer's stove; though, in the former case, it was in a state of more perfect solution, and therefore did not produce any perceptible degree of dampness.

Having thus endeavoured to prove that the aqueous vapour is not the cause of the phænomenon, Mr. Dalton has recourse to an idea first suggested by M. Lambert, and adopted by MM. Pictet and Saussure, that a vacuum has a definite capacity for heat, and that this capacity is *less* than that of an equal volume of atmospherical air; at the same time, the *denser* the air is, the less is its capacity for heat. 'On these principles,' says the author, 'the phænomena are easily referable to that class of chemical facts where heat and cold are generated by the mixture

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mixture of two different bodies.' Not to dwell on the *verbal* inaccuracy of this statement, we must remark that it is by no means a fortunate application of the hyopthesis; and, indeed, we entertain considerable doubts respecting the stability of the hypothesis itself.

Experimental Essays on the Constitution of mixed Gases; on the Force of Steam or Vapour from Water and other Liquids in different Temperatures, both in a Torricellian Vacuum and in Air: on Evaporation; and on the Expansion of Gases by Heat. By the Same.—This active philosopher commences by laying down four general propositions, which may be considered as the fundamental results of the four separate dissertations that compose this paper:

'1. When two elastic fluids, denoted by *A* and *B*, are mixed together, there is no mutual repulsion amongst their particles; that is, the particles of *A* do not repel those of *B*, as they do one another. Consequently, the pressure or whole weight upon any one particle arises solely from those of its own kind.

'2. The force of steam from all liquids is the same, at equal distances above or below the several temperatures at which they boil in the open air: and that force is the same under any pressure of another elastic fluid as it is in vacuo.

'3. The quantity of any liquid evaporated in the open air is directly as the force of steam from such liquid at its temperature, all other circumstances being the same.

'4. All elastic fluids expand the same quantity by heat: and this expansion is very nearly in the same equable way as that of mercury; at least from 32° to 212°.'

Mr. D. having premised these general remarks, he proceeds to detail the facts and observations from which they were deduced, dividing them into the several heads enumerated in the title.

Essay 1. *On the Constitution of mixed Gases; and particularly of the Atmosphere.* Two opinions have been entertained respecting the constitution of the atmosphere;—the one, that the constituent gases are only mechanically mixed,—the other, that they are chemically united. The obvious answer to the first is, that, notwithstanding the difference in their specific gravities, they remain equally diffused. Against the chemical theory of the atmosphere, it is objected that those effects which are supposed essential to the chemical union of two substances, such as a change of bulk or temperature, are not produced when the gases composing the atmosphere are brought into contact.

Mr Dalton enters on the enunciation of his own theory, by supposing four cases of the operation of a heterogeneous elastic

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fluid: '1. *The particles of one elastic fluid may repel those of another with the same force as they repel those of their own kind.*' This idea, however, cannot apply to the atmosphere; because, according to it, the gases would separate and arrange themselves in conformity with their specific gravity. The same effect would follow from the second supposed case, that '*particles of one elastic fluid may repel those of another with forces greater or less than what they exert upon their own kind;*' which, therefore, is equally inadmissible. The third case supposes, that '*the particles of one elastic fluid may have a chemical affinity or attraction for those of another:*' but Mr. Dalton, as already appears, does not admit that any of the characteristic effects of chemical union are produced by the mixture of the gases which compose the atmosphere.—The fourth supposition is, that '*the particles of one elastic fluid may possess no repulsive or attractive power, or be perfectly inelastic with regard to the particles of another; and consequently the mutual action of the fluids be subject to the laws of inelastic bodies.*' On this hypothesis, the particles of two gases of different specific gravity would not separate and arrange themselves according to their respective gravities, but each gas would diffuse itself through the whole space, in the same manner as if the other had been entirely absent; and, consequently, the pressure on any one particle will be produced solely by the particles of its own kind. Mr. D. conceives that this hypothesis will solve every difficulty with respect to the atmosphere. The different gases which enter into its composition will exist in the most intimate mixture, without any regard to their specific gravity, or without exercising on each other any chemical affinity. That this idea is novel and ingenious must be acknowleged: but it is too remote from the views which are generally adopted on the subject, and involves too many important consequences, to be admitted without a full investigation of its merits and defects. In the present paper, no arguments are adduced in its favour, except the facility with which it accounts for appearances; and no attempts are made to repel any objections that may be urged against it.

The second division of the memoir treats '*on the force of steam or vapour from water and various other liquids, both in a vacuum and in air.*' He begins by the consideration of vapour *in vacuo*. He conceives that there is no essential difference between the *chemical* constitution of vapours and gases, but their mechanical action is admitted to be totally dissimilar. This distinction between vapours and gases is principally apparent in the various degrees of elasticity which are produced by the application of different degrees of heat; and the object of the present essay is to determine the utmost force that vapours can assume at different

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ferent temperatures. The authors who have preceded Mr. Dalton in this inquiry have supposed that the force of the vapour of water at 32° is nothing; an opinion which he shews to be incorrect; and at the same time he renders it probable that, in the higher parts of the scale, they have estimated the force of vapour above the truth. By means of a simple apparatus, Mr. D. performed a number of experiments on vapour between the degrees of 32 and 212; and, by comparing the results, he found that they formed a regular ratio, which enabled him to digest a table for every degree of heat between these two points, and even, with a fair ground of probability, to extend the table both above and below these limits. Experiments were afterward performed on other fluids, some more and some less evaporable than water; and from them he deduced the general principle that '*the variation of the force of vapour from all liquids is the same for the same variation of temperature, reckoning from vapour of any given force.*'

Essay III. *On Evaporation.* After having stated his objections against the theory which supposes water to be chemically dissolved in air, the author proceeds to the detail of some experiments made with the view of ascertaining the effects of a variation of temperature on the quantity of fluid evaporated. He discovered that the quantity evaporated in a given time corresponded accurately with the force of vapour at the same temperature; a coincidence which might naturally be expected to take place, since the force of vapour must depend on the quantity formed in a given time. The first experiments were made only in the higher temperatures, in which the production of vapour was considerable; and before he could ascertain the quantity of evaporation in the lower degrees of heat, Mr. Dalton found it necessary to adopt some method by which he could detect the amount of the vapour previously existing in the atmosphere. This he accomplished by observing at what degree of heat, cold water ceases to produce dew on the outside of the glass in which it is contained; and by finding in the table the force of vapour corresponding to the temperature of the water. Mr. D. concludes this part of the subject by some experiments on the evaporation of ice, from which it appears probable that the same laws prevail below the point of congelation.

The fourth of these dissertations relates to *the expansion of elastic fluids by heat.* This subject had already been investigated by several eminent philosophers, when M. M. Guyton and Du Vernois undertook a more complete examination of it, and their conclusions by no means agreed with those of their predecessors. They conceived that the expansibility of the several gases was very different in its total amount, and that the expansion

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pansion of the same gas was not uniform in the several parts of the scale between 32° and 212°. There was, however, reason to suspect that these experimenters had not been sufficiently accurate in excluding water from the gases on which they operated; and accordingly Mr. Dalton, by paying particular attention to this circumstance, found, in opposition to their conclusions, '*that all elastic fluids under the same pressure expand equally by heat*—and that *for any given expansion of mercury, the corresponding expansion of air is proportionally something less, the higher the temperature.*' These propositions have received a very powerful confirmation from the experiments of M. Say Lussac; who, without being acquainted with Mr. Dalton's researches, was employed nearly at the same time in the examination of the same subject. His essay appeared shortly afterward in the 43d volume of the *Annales de Chimie*; and though he operated with a very different and much more complicated apparatus, his conclusions almost exactly coincided with those of the present author.

The view which we have given of this paper, though necessarily very limited, will enable our readers to form some idea of the originality and importance of its contents. We have seldom met with so much information, and so great a variety of interesting speculation, in so small a compass: but we are obliged, on the other hand, to remark that Mr. Dalton's style is not unfrequently aukward and obscure; that his suggestions are brought forwards in too decisive a manner; and that he appears to pay scarcely sufficient deference to the opinions of his predecessors. His apparatus is extremely simple; and, on that account, we consider his experiments not only as exhibiting more real genius, but as actually of greater value, because it is in the power of every one to repeat them. Their simplicity is, however, on some occasions, carried too far, so as to render them inadequate to the object for which they were instituted; and they sometimes betray a deficiency in that precision which is essentially necessary in the present state of chemical science.

A Review of some Experiments which have been supposed to disprove the Materiality of Heat. By William Henry.—The experiments here reviewed are those of Mr. Davy and Count Rumford; in which those gentlemen excited heat by means of friction, in situations where they imagined it could not be derived from the neighbouring bodies. Mr. Davy produced the extrication of heat by rubbing a metallic plate in the vacuum of an air pump: but this result is by no means decisive, because it has been proved that caloric can pass through a vacuum. In Count

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Count Rumford's celebrated experiment, in which the metal submitted to friction was entirely surrounded by water, Mr. Henry thinks that the Count was not authorized in his conclusion that the water could not transmit caloric to the iron, because it was itself heated. In the attempt to disprove the materiality of caloric, it is also necessary to shew that the quantity contained in the heated body is not diminished by a portion of that becoming uncombined, which previously existed in the latent state; and consequently the absolute quantities before and after the experiment must be ascertained and compared. There are, however, several circumstances which throw at least a shade of doubt over the opinions that have been entertained on this subject, and seem to prove that our method of ascertaining these points is very exceptionable.

After having endeavoured to repel the objections that have been urged against the materiality of heat, Mr. Henry advances some arguments in favour of this opinion. He observes that caloric possesses every property usually attributed to matter, except that of gravity; and on this point we are only warranted in asserting, that the quantity of it which can be collected and confined in a given space is too small to discover the operation of this principle. Mr. H. shews, at some length, that caloric exhibits the most decided marks of chemical affinity; and he appears much inclined to attribute to this cause the effects usually ascribed to what is called the capacity for caloric. The power which it has been proved to possess, of passing through a Torricellian vacuum, we agree with the present author in regarding as a most decided argument in favour of its existence, independently of other matter, and consequently of motion. The necessity to which the supporters of the contrary opinion have been reduced, of imagining the existence of an etherial fluid, when the only proof of such existence rests on the supposed facility with which it accounts for facts of this description, we cannot but consider as a most inconsistent method of philosophizing.

This paper was written previously to the publication of Dr. Herschell's Experiments on the Separation of the Rays of Light and Caloric. They appear to support Mr. Henry's opinion respecting the materiality of caloric, both by exhibiting another striking analogy between the properties of caloric and other matter, and by demonstrating that the minuteness of the particles of heat must necessarily prevent its gravity from being cognizable by our nicest instruments.

An Investigation of the Method whereby Men judge, by the Ear, of the Position of Sonorous Bodies relatively to their own Persons. By

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By Mr. John Gough.—The method by which we are enabled to determine the position of a sounding body, in relation to the ear, has never yet been satisfactorily explained. At first view, we are apt to imagine that we judge in the same way as with respect to the position of visible bodies, by the direction in which the aerial vibrations strike the immediate organ of sensation: but, on reflection, we can scarcely suppose this to be the case, because the windings of the *meatus externus* are so considerable, that in whatsoever direction the pulses of the air impinge on the external parts of the ear, they must all be brought into nearly the same line, before they can arrive at the tympanum. The inquiry may be resolved into three distinct subjects of investigation; 1st. what the author calls direct hearing, when the sound proceeds from a point immediately before or immediately behind; 2d. oblique hearing, when the sound proceeds from one side, but is still on the same horizontal plane with the ear; and 3d. when the sound proceeds from a point above or below the ear.

The case of oblique hearing is well explained on the idea that, according as a sounding body is placed to the right or left side of the auditor, the ear of that side receives a greater or less proportion of the aerial pulses, and thus is sensible to a louder sound than the opposite ear; while from experience we learn to judge that the sounding body is situated on the side on which we receive the strongest impression. When both ears receive the sound in an equal degree, we conclude that the sounding body is either directly before or directly behind us. The more difficult part of the investigation still remains, to determine the direction of the aerial vibrations when they fall equally on both the ears; and to explain this point, Mr. Gough supposes that the tympanum is not the only organ capable of receiving the impression of sound, but that the different parts of the head possess this faculty in a greater or less degree. Whether he intends to assert that the bones of the cranium actually possess the faculty of hearing, or that they only convey to the ear impressions made on them, is not precisely stated: but we conceive the latter to be his meaning.

Admitting Mr. G.'s hypothesis, it is easy to determine, not only whether a sound be before or behind us, but whether it be above or below the ear; because a sensation is excited in the part of the head turned towards the object, which experience enables us to connect with the position of the sounding body. In order to prove his hypothesis, the author informs us that, after having closed his ears, he applied one end of a rod of wood to the forehead, and found that he could perceive the beating of a watch at the other extremity. We conceive, however,

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however, that this experiment will not prove sufficient to establish the point; for it may be urged, in direct opposition to it, that, though the vibrations of a solid body are capable of being conveyed by the bones of the cranium to the ear, the pulses of the air do not appear capable of making the least impression on these parts. If the ears be accurately closed, and no solid body touch the head, it will, we believe, be impossible to receive the least sensation of sound.

The paper concludes with some remarks on ventriloquism. Mr. Gough endeavours to explain the deception produced in this art, by supposing that the performer has the power of throwing his voice against some opposing body, before it has been received by the audience; and that they hear, not the voice itself, but only the echo of it, which comes to them in the direction whence it was last reflected. We cannot acquiesce in this speculation; besides the impossibility of throwing the voice, as it were in a right line, without its spreading into the contiguous space, how can an echo be in any case perceived, without the sound which caused the echo being previously heard, and affecting the ear with more violence?

The Theory of Compound Sounds. By the Same.—The principal object of this paper is to support the hypothesis of Dr. Smith, in opposition to the one lately advanced by Dr. Young. The author endeavours to prove, both by appealing to experience and by mathematical reasoning, that two distinct pulses of air, constituting two sounds, can never coalesce so as to form one uniform vibration or sound. So far as it relates to the mechanical operation produced by the sounding body on the air, we conceive that Mr. Gough's idea is certainly just: but we doubt whether he be equally correct with regard to the effect on our sensations. Different ears possess, in a very different degree, the power of analyzing compound sounds; and it is perhaps impracticable to fix a limit to this power: yet we are inclined to believe that there is a limit, beyond which it is absolutely impossible for this faculty to be extended. If we mistake not, a considerable share of what is properly called harmony depends on a coalescence of the sensations of sound, though it be acknowleged that the mechanical vibrations of the air remain perfectly distinct.

Meteorological Observations. *By* John Dalton.—Various remarks occur in this paper, which may be consulted by the Meteorologist.

Miscellaneous Papers.

We have been induced to dwell so much at large on the philosophical memoirs, that we shall be under the necessity of

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passing over the remainining contents of this volume in a more cursory manner.

On Tragedy, and the Interest in Tragical Representations. An Essay. By the Rev. Geo. Walker, *F. R. S.*—The feelings excited by representations of a tragic nature are confessedly painful, and yet mankind, in all ages and countries, have shewn a propensity to them. This singular contradiction has been discussed by several ingenious philosophers and moralists, but no satisfactory solution of the difficulty has been obtained. Mr. Walker reviews in succession the explanations that have been proposed by Du Bos, who attributed it to the delight which we feel in having our passions excited to action; by Fontenelle, founded on a metaphysical idea, respecting the relation which pleasure and pain bear to each other; the theory derived from the selfish system of morals, as it is called, according to which, our pleasure proceeds from the reflection that we are ourselves exempt from the distress which we are witnessing; and lastly, that of Hume, who refers the greatest part of the pleasure to the eloquence with which the melancholy scene is represented.

Mr. Walker conceives that our gratification is chiefly derived from the sentiments of compassion, or sympathy, that are called forth; a principle, which he regards as naturally delightful, and sufficient to induce even the most interested Being to partake in the distresses of others. In tragical representations, these feelings are excited in a high degree, and are at the same time unmixed with those circumstances which, in real life, so frequently produce a degree of disgust that counteracts the pleasure derived from sympathetic emotions.

Essay on the beautiful in the Human Form; and Inquiry whether the Grecian Statues present the most perfect Beauty of Form that we are at present acquainted with. By the Same.—The subject of this essay is two-fold; the author first endeavouring to ascertain a standard of beauty, and next inquiring how far the Grecian artists have been able to arrive at this standard. The idea of beauty, he conceives, is acquired by observing in what points the varieties of the human form agree, and in what they differ; where they agree, it may be fairly presumed that they are perfect; while the points on which they differ must be regarded as deviations from the complete form, and consequently as defects. The standard of beauty is therefore insensibly created in the mind by taking, as it were, a mean of all the forms which come under our inspection; and this standard will be more or less perfect, according to the opportunities which different individual possess for making observations, and

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their faculty of comparing them together and deducing the just medium.

The climate and manners of Greece are acknowleged to have been peculiarly adapted to the perfection of the human form; while the great estimation, in which the fine arts were held, excited a high degree of attention to their culture. Hence it may be reasonably concluded, not only that the Grecian artists have never been equalled, but that no state of society is likely to recur which will prove so favourable to the perfection of sculpture.

A Defence of Learning and the Arts, against some Charges of Rousseau. In two Essays. By the Same. *Essay I. That Learning is not the Parent of Politeness, nor chargeable with the Duplicity, Fraud and Vice, which he supposes to be her Attendants. —Essay II. That Luxury and corrupt Manners are not the Progeny of Science and the Arts, in answer to Rousseau.*—We have always viewed the declamation of Rousseau against learning, rather in the light of an eloquent sally of the imagination, than of a deliberate exercise of the judgment. Notwithstanding, therefore, the admiration which we may have felt for the genius of the author, we have never considered his prize essay as a work which either admitted or required a serious refutation. Viewing the subject in this light, we cannot but regard the paper of Mr. Walker as a superfluous exertion: but, at the same time that we pass this kind of censure on the intention of these essays, we must acknowlege our approbation of the manner in which they are executed. We meet with much good sense, clearly and forcibly expressed; and they amply deserve a perusal, even by those who are already satisfied of the futility of Rousseau's reasoning.

An Account of some Antiques lately found in the River Ribble. By Thomas Barritt.—Little light is thrown on these antiquities by Mr. Barritt's account. He conjectures, indeed, that Celts are of the highest antiquity, and that these copper relicts were the instruments (said to be gold) employed by the Druids in cutting the misletoe: but beyond conjecture he does not proceed. A ring is mentioned, which is supposed to have been the bracelet of a British or Roman lady.—In an *Appendix* to this paper, notice is taken by Mr. B. of a stone found in the Castle-field, Manchester, (the *Mancunium* of the Romans,) with an explanation of the inscription by Dr. Holme; who considers the relic as of some importance, since it enables us to restore the proper appellation of the cohort that garrisoned *Mancunium*.

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ART. VIII. *A General Treatise on Cattle, the Ox, the Sheep, and the Swine:* comprehending their Breeding, Management, Improvement, and Diseases. By John Lawrence, Author of the *New Farmer's Calendar* *, *Modern Land Steward* †, &c. &c. 8vo. pp. 640. 12s. Boards. Symonds. 1805.

IT is very essential in all the sciences that our Physics should be Facts, but in none more than in Agriculture. The georgical lecturer should be a man of experience and careful observation, the slave of no theory, but solicitous merely to collect the lessons of nature, and to inculcate practices founded on the basis of true philosophy. As opinions will differ, it will be his duty to notice varieties of sentiment: but, if his judgment be sound, he will winnow the chaff from the corn; or, to speak without any allusive figure, will distinguish weakness and puerility from knowlege and good sense. We do not find the maxim always verified, that "In the multitude of counsellors there is safety;" unless there be an able chairman or judge to sum up, to arrange the evidence, and to give to prominent facts their due preponderance. When it is the custom to promulgate systems and practical hints for the benefit of any class of men, he is often found not the least useful of authors, who endeavours to generalize, and to bring the scattered rays of information into one focus.

Such has been the aim of Mr. Lawrence in the treatise before us; and the topics to which he has invited the agriculturist's attention are of great importance. The proper choice and management of live stock are intimately connected with the culture of the earth; and so many circumstances require consideration in this branch of rural economy, so much ignorance and cruelty still prevail among common farmers, and so many prejudices still remain to be extirpated, that we are always pleased when an enlightened and humane writer undertakes the subject. It cannot be expected that his readers should commend every part of a work, in which are discussed the breeding, management, improvement, and the diseases of cattle, including oxen, sheep, and swine: (we use *swine* as a plural noun, in which sense it is commonly employed, though instances are to be adduced of its use in the singular number:) but, if the task be for the most part judiciously performed, and the volume be the result of examination and reflection, the agricultural student will peruse it with profit, and feel grateful to the author for his trouble. As, moreover, professed farmers are not very liberal of their advice,—especially to gentlemen who

* See Rev. Vol. xxxiii. N. S. p. 140. † See Vol. xli. p. 389.

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are left to *blunder out* their way to knowlege, and thus to acquire experience at a very dear rate,—such a book as that which is here presented to them will be of singular utility in facilitating their acquaintance with live stock, and in warning them against errors into which their practised neighbours would be pleased to see them fall. It is impossible for us to advert particularly to the several topics included in this general treatise; and it must suffice to remark that Mr. Lawrence, under the head of *Neat Cattle*, notices their specific distinctions and appellations, the various breeds of British cattle, the economy of the milk-house, grazing, and fattening; and that he presents a comparative view of horse and ox labour, to which is added a collection of various opinions and practices relative to Neat Cattle from antient and modern authorities.

Under the general title *Sheep*, Mr. L. enumerates the different kinds of sheep in different countries, gives a table of the breeds known in our own island, and treats of wool, of crossing breeds, of shepherds, of the various plans of sheep husbandry, of signs of health, of food and the fold-yard, of Lambs, their castration, weaning, &c. on shearing, &c., on the origin of British fine-woolled sheep, &c.

The chapter on *Swine* describes their generic character, the varieties, and particularly the breeds of Great Britain, the methods of breeding, store-feeding, and fattening.

Mr. L. introduces his chapter on *Cattle Medicine*, with deserved ridicule of quacks, cow-doctors, and their books; and to aid the effect, the well-known anecdote of Dr. Rock is introduced. After a view of diseases and remedies, proposals are made for a veterinary establishment on a rational foundation. In conclusion, the different diseases affecting oxen, cows, calves, sheep, and lambs, are enumerated; and hints for cure are suggested: but Mr. L. does not extend his prescriptions to Swine, observing that 'you may as well doctor or drench the devil as a pig.'

In singing the praise of the ox, the author will be regarded as a little extravagant; especially when he reports him to be qualified 'even for the saddle:' but the general remarks on his value to man are just; and we applaud the humanity of pleading his cause against the cruel practice of bull-baiting. Brute animals are given to us for food, as well as for labour: but our appointed dominion over them does not justify any of the modes of torture; and the particulars which are here recorded, of the treatment of a bull baited at Bury, if true, are a disgrace to the country. We turn from the scene to Mr. L.'s account of the utility of the Cow:

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'In point of utility and profit, no animal can stand in competition with the cow; a sentiment which has been universal from the primitive ages, and which, to this moment, has lost nothing of its force or truth. Her milk, so indispensable to civilized man, is her most precious product, and of which the value, in various forms, is so universally and feelingly understood. Of this real liquor of life, more valuable than the richest wines, the cow will give the amount of *many times her weight* in the course of a year, and every year, that she continues in a constant state of reproduction, unto the end of life, when her last gift to man is food of the most substantial kind, and so many articles of various use, that no part of her carcase need be wasted or lost; the worth of these replaces, probably doubles, her original cost.

'The flesh of the ox, whether for immediate use or preservation, has been too often celebrated to bear a new description. His tallow contributes to double the number of our days—his joints give us oil—his hide, leather of the strongest kind—his hair helps to cement the walls of our dwellings—of his horns, are made combs and toys—of his teeth, buttons—his bones are a cheap substitute for ivory, and their ashes serve to refine silver—his large, full eye is instrumental to the discoveries of the anatomist—his blood, gall, and urine are of account in manufacture, medicine, and manuring the soil.'

The circumstances subjoined respecting Neat Cattle may be of use to young farmers:

'The period of GESTATION with the cow, having a bull calf, is, according to the average of my own accounts *two hundred and eighty-seven days*, or forty one weeks, with the variation of a few days, either way; a cow calf comes in about a week less time.

'The cow, having TWINS of different sexes, the female is called a free-martin, and is said to be invariably incapable of procreation. I have ever entertained some suspicion of the correctness of this old notion, which seems to have little reason for its support, and conjecture that a female twin may possibly breed, although its associate be a male; as we know that cow-calves, singly born, occasionally prove barren. The free-martin, or barren heifer, to the best of my recollection, for I have not seen one for some years, has a bullish appearance about the head, horns, and neck, with a small udder. The different notions respecting the qualities of the free-martin shew very plainly the dependence which may be placed upon them; by some their beef is represented as of superior excellence, by others as coarse-grained, flabby, and very bad.

'The AGE of neat cattle is determined by the teeth and horns. They, as well as sheep, are destitute of teeth in the upper jaw; but the mark of age, as in the horse, is to be found in their corner incisory teeth of the lower jaw. The first front teeth, or calves teeth, remarkable for their whiteness, are shed at two years old, and replaced by others not so white. Every succeeding year, two other calves teeth, next to the front, are also replaced, and at five years old the incisory, or cutting teeth being all renewed, are of good length, whitish and even, and the beast is full mouthed. From this period, as the horse, the teeth are gradually filling up until six years, when the mark

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is complete. The teeth afterwards become discoloured by age, and sometimes long and irregular. I know not what kind of calves, or of authority, certain of our writers intend, when they talk of calves shedding teeth at ten months old. At three years of age, the horns are shed and replaced by others which continue. The indications of age from the horns are as follow: in the fourth year of the bullock's age, a kind of button, or ring, appears near the head as the bud or basis of the horn; in the course of the year this ring moves, being pushed forward by another which succeeds it, a process which goes on to the end of the animal's life, its years being determinable by the number of these rings upon the horns, reckoning three years for the first ring. It is common with dealers to obliterate these rings, by shaving the horns, in order to conceal the age of the beast.

'The HORNS of cattle are general designations of distinction and variety, and are supposed to denote particular qualities. Thus, English bullocks are distinguished as long, half long, short, and middle-horned, wide and broad horned, polled or hornless. The grand distinctions, however, are the long and short horned, which seem generally implicated with peculiar properties of milk and hide. Thus the long horned cows produce a richer milk, in course a greater proportional quantity of butter and cheese, and a thicker hide, than the short horned, which last, however, afford larger quantities both of milk, beef, and tallow.

'The flesh of the long horns is generally more compact and solid, and finer in the grain, than that of the short; whilst in the last particular, fineness of grain, they are both far excelled by several middle-horned varieties. Mr. Culley, I apprehend, is mistaken in supposing the short horns the quickest feeders, an opinion totally incompatible with the fact of their being also more productive in tallow. Exceptions will however of course be found.

'These distinctions are more apparent in the stock of Yorkshire and the Midland countries, yet their peculiar properties certainly influence, in however small and imperceptible degrees, the whole stock of neat cattle in this country and Ireland: whether they prevail with the same effect, in the cattle of other countries, I am unable to ascertain. But this rule, like all others, has its exceptions, and in the present case the Norman and Alderney cows present a very strong one; with short horns, they afford a very rich milk, it is averred equal, in that respect, to the best long horned cows, with a larger proportional quantity. Large or long horns generally indicate thickness of hide, of which our Lancashire and Shropshire cattle are eminent examples. It is remarkable that the horns of the cow are usually more extensive than those of the bull, those of oxen still larger than either.

'The COLOUR of cattle seems perfectly immaterial, in the view of utility, unless we allow the common exception of white and light colours, on the score of tenderness. The old prognostics drawn from colour were truly nonsensical. I have frequently seen black cows the largest milkers, and have at this time before my eyes, an ancient one of Holderness, milking herself gradually to the dogs at the rate of nine gallons in a day.

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'The most usual APPELLATIVES, at this day, are—ox, bull, and cow Bull and cow calves. A young castrated male, after the first year, is called a stot, stirk, or steer—at five years old an ox. A female, after the first year, is called a heifer or quey; at four years old, a cow. And afterwards, a castrated female is called a spayed-heifer or cow Certain of the Welsh and Scots cattle, of rather a coarse and sturdy kind, are denominated runts. Bullock is the general term for any full grown cattle, male or female, fat or lean.'

Hints concerning Dairies, from the Cheshire practice:

'HOURS OF MILKING, in the summer, at six, morning and evening (the morning hour surely too late); one woman manages ten cows. The farmer himself attends the milking, assists in carrying the milk, and observes particularly, that the cows are well dripped, or the udder perfectly cleared of milk; for should any be left, it would not only be the richest of the milk, "each succeeding drop, which a cow gives at a meal, excelling the preceding one in richness," but such negligence has the effect of causing a cow to become gradually dry.

'For the MILK HOUSE, a northern aspect is preferred, and it is desirable that it be so sheltered by buildings or trees, as to divert the sun's rays throughout the whole day. An uniform temperature of the air within, ought to be preserved, the year round. In winter a Buzaglio stove would best effect this In summer, the end will be attained, by pouring spring water on the floor; and water should ever be at hand in a dairy. The expeditious cooling of the milk, in summer, has considerable effect in retarding its acidity.

'QUANTITY OF CHEESE made from one cow, in the season, of twenty-two weeks from April or May, about 300 to 500 pounds and upwards. The former quantity accounted a good average for a dairy, accidents included. One gallon of milk makes one pound of cheese, and the dairy men are better satisfied with a cow which gives only eight quarts per day, through the season, than with that which has a greater flow; in which case it is proved, the milk is generally thinner and less productive of goods, and the cow liable to go earlier dry. The object of the dairies, in the choice of cows, is to obtain such as will produce the largest quantity of *goods*, that is, cheese or butter, and of beef.'

We highly commend this author for embracing every opportunity of protesting against cruelties usually practised by farmers; and we advise the perusal of his expostulation against *stocking* of cows, as it is termed, for sale, *i.e.* distending their udder by omitting to milk them.

Next to the cow, Mr. L. places the Sheep, the value of whose flesh and fleece is duly appreciated. At p. 318, he states the number of sheep in the kingdom to be only *six* millions: but he afterward corrects himself, and gives it at *twenty-six* millions. Indeed he thinks that it requires a much greater number to produce the annual quantity of wool. With a strenuous zeal for the improvement of the sheep husbandry,

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the author lays down the system which he conceives should be followed; and to which, no doubt, the attention of farmers and of the legislature ought to be directed.

Readers of agricultural books are sometimes at a loss for the meaning of certain terms; and perhaps the following *appellatives* may belong to this class:

'A ram or wether lamb, after being weaned, is called a HOG, or HOGGITT, TAG or PUG, throughout the first year, or until he renew two teeth; the ewe, an EWE-LAMB, EWE-TAG or PUG. In the SECOND year the wether takes the name of SHEAR HOG, and has his first two renewed or broad teeth, or he is called a TWO-TOOTHED TAG or PUG; the ewe is called A THAIVE, or two-toothed ewe tag or pug. In the THIRD year a SHEAR-HOG or FOUR-TOOTHED WETHER, a FOUR-TOOTHED EWE or THAIVE. The FOURTH year a SIX-TOOTHED WETHER or EWE. The FIFTH year, having EIGHT BROAD TEETH, they are said to be FULL-MOUTHED sheep. Their age also, particularly of the rams, is reckoned by the number of times they have been shorn, the first shearing taking place in the second year; A SHEARLING OR ONE-SHEAR, TWO-SHEAR, &c. The term *pug* is, I believe, nearly become obsolete. In the North and in Scotland, ewe hogs are called *dimonts*, and in the West of England ram lambs are called *pur lambs*.

'The ancient term *tup*, for a ram, is in full use. CRONE still signifies an old ewe. Of *crock*, I know nothing of the etymology, and little more of the signification, only that the London butchers of the old school, and some few of the present, call Wiltshire sheep horned *crocks*. I believe crock mutton is a term of inferiority.'

If we had not before applauded Mr. Lawrence's humanity, we should insert his amiable advice respecting the *shepherd's dog*, p. 332. His remarks also on the excessive fatting of sheep deserve attention; and we sincerely wish that he could dissuade from the practice.

The Spanish breed, and Spanish wool, lead to a long discussion: but we must transcribe no more from this part. We shall also excuse ourselves from *grunting* over the chapter on Swine, and from accompanying the author in his examination of closet and Grub-street pig-feeding; taking our leave with giving it as our opinion, which we are persuaded the above quoted passages will justify, that this *General Treatise on Cattle* is not inferior in merit to the *New Farmer's Calendar*.

ART. IX. *The Invalid:* with the obvious Means of enjoying Health and long Life. By a Nonagenarian, Editor of the *Spiritual Quixote*, &c. &c. (the Rev. Mr. Graves, of Bath.) 12mo. 4s. Boards. R. Phillips.

WE have perused this little volume with pleasure and approbation; mingled, however, with sincere regret for

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the recent loss of the venerable *Nonagenarian*, whom we have so long been in the habits of regarding with respect. After a facetious introduction, in which the author looks forwards to the uncertainty of surviving the various perils which his work must encounter under the lash of Reviewers, he enters on the description of an Invalid in the character of one of his friends, and proceeds in the subsequent chapters to offer a variety of useful and interesting remarks on Health, Quack Medicines, Temperance, and Longevity.—The ensuing remark on Health is worth attention:

'The Epicure's maxim is, "a short life and a merry one." My wish is, "a long life and an healthy one." If, however, my reader is a voluntary slave to his appetite, and postpones any regard to his health to a comfortable breakfast the moment he is out of bed, and has crept down to the parlour fire; and instead of a ride in the Park, or a walk in the Mall, lounges away the morning at the coffee house, or sauntering in Bond-street, till he sits down to a plentiful dinner, and cannot resist the importunity of the lady at the head of the table, who assures him that a third or fourth slice of venison will not hurt him,—if this, or something similar, be his plan of life, I anticipate his confinement in a few years with the gout or rheumatism, or some chronical or perhaps acute disease of a more dangerous kind.'

A very *safe* and *saving* receipt is given for avoiding the ill effects of indulging the appetite:

'If you are tempted at any time to transgress on one day, repair the injury by greater abstinence on the next: occasional fasting, without considering it as a religious duty, is the best antidote against too frequent feasting. And in countries, where carnivals and repeated festivals are enjoined as pious ceremonies, strict Lents and frequent Fasts seem, in a physical view, to be very wise institutions.'

This rule, and indeed several other reflections on similar subjects in the work, remind us of the valuable counsels suggested in *Hartley's Rule of Life.* The reader will smile at the pleasantry, as well as approve the good sense, of the following thought on temperance:

'It has been observed that all other animals besides man are contented with one species of food; flesh, fish, or fowl, or vegetables; and never encroach on that of a different species.

'The lion, though invested with sovereign power, and living in regal style, is content with the leg of a calf or the haunch of a stag; never thinks of a second course, or of a desert, or even of sauce, cauliflower, or carrot, pickled cucumber, or the like.

'The eagle also, king of the birds, feasts himself and the royal family, the young princes, and the infanta, on a brace of pheasants, a turkey, or a dozen pigeons; but would not debase himself by stooping to a nest of larks or robin-red-breasts, for a second course.

'But

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'But man, as lord of the creation, by his prerogative, falls foul on whatever comes in his way, and ransacks the universe to gratify his voracious appetite: the fowls of the air, the fishes of the sea, the beasts of the forest, with vegetables of every *genus* and every *species*; not only "herbs, which were intended for the use of man," but roots which seem reserved for the food and the snouts of hogs; nay, even the excrescences of nature, mushrooms, and truffles, indigestible substances! which if they were ever intended to be eaten, it must probably have been by the inhabitants of the infernal regions.

'If temperance, however, regulated our use of these various articles of food with which Providence indulges us; if we killed the animals without cruelty, and cooked them with plainness and simplicity, they might be what Providence intended them, instead of what we too often make them; a blessing and not a curse: but when we torture them in taking away their lives, as we often do, and scarify and carbonade, and bedevil their flesh not only with pepper and salt, as we do the gizzard of a turkey, but adding a little *nutmeg*, a little *cinnamon*, a *blade* of *mace*, with chalot and onions, &c.; and eat it with oil, vinegar, or mustard; such an heterogenous mixture, instead of producing a lacteous chyle, flowing through the alimentary canal, like the gentle stream of Arno, must become a caustic fluid, rushing like the fiery torrent of Vesuvius, harrowing up and tearing the vessels; or at least generate fevers, calentures, and every disease incident to the human body.'

Several pieces of poetry are intermixed with the prosaic advice; and we shall conclude our extracts with the lines on *Temperance*:

'ON TEMPERANCE.*

'*Imitated from Horace, B. I. Ode 22.*

'Integer vitæ, &c.

1.

'The man that leads a sober life,
Obsequious to his careful wife,
Abstains from all high season'd food,
And drinks no more than does him good;

2.

'He needs no case of costly drams,
Nor hamper stuff'd with tongues and hams;
Much less the pills that quacks may puff,
Nor *poisonous* † draughts of doctor's stuff!

3.

'Whether through half-starv'd France he goes,
Or traversing th' unmelting snows

'* Honoured with the Bath Easton myrtle.

'† Nec venenatis gravidâ sagittis, &c.

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That crown the Alps and Appennines,
On frogs and stinking rabbits dines,
Or tempts the Volga's barbarous flood,
Where Tartars feed on horses' blood.

4.

'For late, on my return to college,
The seat of Temperance and knowledge,
A spotted fiend * with fevers arm'd,
And poisonous breath, the town alarm'd;
No lynx or leopard fiercer ranges
Amongst the Hindoos on the Ganges,
Or haunts the much-fam'd banks of Nile,
Where lurks the treach'rous crocodile.

5.

'Yet taking Temp'rance to my aid,
Undaunted through close lanes I stray'd,
And brav'd the monster, void of fear—
He found no food for fevers here.

6.

'Place me amidst th' eternal frost
That reigns on Lapland's desert coast,
Where not a flower or cheerful green,
Or scarce a cabbage-stem is seen;
But clouds, and fogs, and darkness drear
Obscure and sadden half the year.
Place me beneath the torrid zone,
Where scarce a crazy hut † is known,
To Temperance while my vows I pay,
And sing her praise and offspring gay;
Fair Health my cares shall still beguile, ‡
And sweetly prattle, sweetly smile.'

We do not know any more convincing proof of the value of the precepts here delivered, than their effect on the author himself; who, by the observance of them, enjoyed a life of health and cheerfulness to a very advanced period.

The press has not been carefully corrected in editing this little volume; particularly in quoting the Latin passages. In the preceding extract, we have corrected four errors in the lines from Horace; and the ode itself is mis-numbered 12 instead of 22.

'* The small-pox.'

'† In terra domibus negatâ.'

'‡ Dulce ridentem.'

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ART. X. *A Poem on the Restoration of Learning in the East.* By the Rev. Francis Wrangham, M. A. F. R. S. Fellow of Trinity College, Cambridge. 4to. 3s. Mawman. 1805.

To this Poem, the following Advertisement is prefixed:—

'The Reverend CLAUDIUS BUCHANAN, Vice-Provost of the College of Fort-William in Bengal, and formerly a Member of Queen's College, Cambridge, where he proceeded to the Degree of B. A. gave to the University, in 1804, the Sum of TWO HUNDRED and TEN POUNDS; desiring that it might be divided into the undermentioned Prizes:

'I. One Hundred Pounds for an English Prose Dissertation, "*On the best Means of civilizing the Subjects of the British Empire in India; and of diffusing the Light of the Christian Religion throughout the Eastern World.*" II. Sixty Pounds for an English Poem, "*On the Restoration of Learning in the East.*" III. Twenty five Pounds for a Latin Poem on the following subject: "*Collegium Bengalense.*" IV. Twenty-five Pounds for a Greek Ode on the following subject: "ΓΕΝΕΣΘΩ ΦΩΣ."

'The Gentlemen appointed by the University of Cambridge to award Mr. BUCHANAN's Prizes, after having adjudged the Prize for the English Poem to Mr. GRANT, Fellow of Magdalen College, unanimously expressed their Wish for the Publication of the following Poem: the Author, therefore, with a just sense of the honour which it has experienced, now submits it to general perusal.'

This concluding paragraph may perhaps be viewed by different people in different lights. For ourselves, we are most willing to suppose that, though the judges preferred the poem of Mr. Grant, they conceived that Mr. Wrangham's composition had too much merit to be allowed to remain unknown, and therefore paid it the compliment of requesting that it might be published. As we have not seen Mr. G.'s production, we can institute no comparison between the rival candidates: but if Mr. W. be compared with himself, he has little reason to blush at the present performance. It is less defective than the last poem which we noticed from the pen of this author; and several of its parts have obtained a finishing which must do him credit. Some of the thoughts and lines are beautiful, and on the whole the versification is harmonious. Paradise having been in Asia, Mr. W. supposes 'the giant sun' to have darted his first beams on this region of the globe; and it is unquestionable that it was distinguished with the first beams of divine revelation. Knowlege, however, though at first derived from the most perfect source, and preserved for a time by tradition, became at length confused and blended with fable. This fact Mr. W. compares to the Ganges, which rises pure among mountain-snows, but which collects pollution in the length of its course:

'So

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'So born and fed 'mid Turan's mountain-snows,
Pure as his source, awhile young Ganges flows;
Through flowery meads his loitering way pursues,
And quaffs with gentle lip the nectar'd dews;
'Till, swoln by many a tributary tide,
His waters wash some tall pagoda's side:
Then broad and rough, 'mid rocks unknown to day,
Through tangled woods where tigers howl for prey,
He foams along; and, rushing to the main,
Drinks deep pollution from each tainted plain.'

Here the thought is good; though the passage is not strictly correct. The line

'And quaffs with gentle lip the nectar'd dews;'

is a personification of the Ganges which does not comport with other parts of the passage; and though the pure religion of the East was polluted by the superstitions of Brahma, it cannot be asserted that the waters of the Ganges were corrupted by 'washing some tall pagoda's side.' When comparisons are made, care should be taken to preserve the mutual correspondence.

Mr. W. compliments India on the antiquity of her scientific attainments, and laments her degradation by her Asiatic and her subsequent oppression by her European conquerors. The arrival of Sir W. Jones, in the East, is celebrated as a blessing to that part of the globe; and we have so high a respect for the character of this truly great and amiable man, that we cannot resist the transcription of that part of the poem in which he is the subject:

'Tis past. Too long oppression's tyrant race
Have ground her children with their iron mace!
Too long has silence heard her whisper'd fears,
And glens impervious drank her flowing tears!
'Tis past. Her bosom stung with conscious shame,
Awaken'd Albion re-asserts her fame;
Inclines in pity to a groaning land,
Wrests the foul sceptre from the spoiler's hand;
And, greatly lavish in the glorious cause,
Grants with her JONES her science and her laws—
Her JONES, high gifted to fulfil her plan;
The friend of learning, freedom, truth, and man.
His were the stores of letter'd time, comprest
The mind of ages in a single breast;
The glance to catch, the patience to inquire,
The sage's temper and the poet's fire.
In him the wealth of Greece and Latium shone,
Their Themis, Clio, Erato, his own;
And his, reveal'd in all their dazzling hues,
The luscious charms of ASIA's florid Muse:

With

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With her o'er Schiraz' roseate plain he roved,
Where Hafiz revell'd and where Sadi loved:
On Rocnabad's green marge delighted stray'd,
Heard her soft lute in Mosellay's sweet shade:
Then pierced the mazy depths of Sanscrit lore,
While Brahmins own'd a light unseen before;
Bow'd to their master-pupil, and confest
With humbled brow the genius of the West.
But nobler cares are his: for human kind
He plies his restless energies of mind.
Strung by that orb, beneath whose flaming ray
Inferiour natures crumble to decay,
With growing speed he presses to the goal,
And his fleet axles kindle as they roll.
'Twas his to bid admiring INDIA see,
In law, pure reason's ripen'd progeny:
Law, which in heaven and earth holds sovereign sway;
Whose rule the bad endure, the good obey;
Whose giant grasp, o'er whirling spheres extends,
Whose tender hand the insect-speck befriends;
Her voice of quiring worlds th' harmonious mode,
And her high throne the bosom of her GOD.
'Ah! short the blessing: of ætherial fire
One vivid burst, to lighten and expire!
In vain the Christian crown'd the learned name,
And boundless knowlege form'd his meaner fame:—
He falls: bewail'd from where Hydaspes laves
His sands of gold, to Thames's distant waves;
Isis and Ganges weep their sage's doom,
And mingle sorrows o'er his early tomb.
O stay your griefs, sad streams! On length of years
Rests not the age, which ruthless time reveres.
Ripe to his grave unspotted youth descends,
Though to his cheek the rose it's radiance lends;
And hoary folly ranks in childhood's train,
Taught to be wise by rolling suns in vain.'

'After a notice of the New College at Calcutta, Mr. W. digresses to pay a warm tribute of veneration and gratitude to his own Alma Mater, under her classic name of Granta. These lines are heart-felt.—The effects of the Restoration of Learning on the people of Hindostan form a necessary part of this production; and the flattering address to England, with which it concludes, might have been expected from the poet. Like a true christian divine, Mr. W.'s last paragraph contains a prayer for the universal triumph of the gospel:

'O haste your tardy coming, days of gold,
Long by prophetic minstrelsy foretold!
Where yon bright purple streaks the orient skies,
Rise Science, Freedom, Peace, Religion, rise!

'Till,

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'Till, from Tanjore to farthest Samarcand,
In one wide lustre bask the glowing land;
And, (Brahma from his guilty greatness hurl'd
With Mecca's Lord,) MESSIAH rule the world!'

As it would consume too much of our space, were we to descend to minute criticism, we cannot comment on every passage to which objections might be offered. We shall only farther remark, that Mr. W. is not happy in his very first couplet:

"Let there be light!"—So spake th' Almighty Word,
And streams of splendour gush'd around their Lord.'

If he means by 'their Lord' the Lord of Light and Life, it is perfect bathos to tell us that streams of light surrounded "the Father of Lights;" and if by 'their Lord' he means the Sun, it is perfectly unnecessary to inform us that streams of splendour gushed from the source of splendour. Sounding expressions are only valuable in poetry when they afford clear and nervous meaning.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For MAY, 1805.

AFFAIRS OF IRELAND.

Art. 11 *Thoughts on the Protestant Ascendancy in Ireland.* With an Appendix. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Harding.

RULERS not unfrequently sacrifice the principles of enlightened and liberal policy at the shrine of party influence, and prefer the weakness of division to the strength of unanimity. When this happens to be the case, the lessons of history and the suggestions of the wise are delivered in vain; and the conviction of error is not superinduced, but by the discipline of dearly bought experience. We should be sorry that the fate of Ireland should afford another instance of the truth of these remarks. Her present state exhibits few traces of wise government; and the crisis to which she appears to be advancing should arouse our statesmen from their lethargy, and prompt to measures which shall be the reverse of littleness and favouritism. He who dares to speak the truth without disguise ought to be hailed as the friend of his Sovereign and of his country; and he who would risk the safety or retard the prosperity of the empire, on the narrow principle of exclusion, should be directed to review its uniform and invariable operation. If religion may on the one hand be made the stalking horse of rebellion, it may equally on the other become the pretext for injustice and the cloak of ambition. No proofs can be adduced of empires gaining strength and riches by persecution, but examples to the contrary can be furnished in abundance. When we think it necessary so to stigmatize the speculative religious faith of men, or the

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the modes and ceremonies with which they worship God, as to make them grounds of exclusion from the privileges of citizenship, can we wonder at discontents and alienation of mind? Political justice is the only sure and permanent basis of political attachment. We shall find no difficulty in governing Ireland if we recognize this maxim; but if we are resolved to adhere to the old-fashioned line of policy, she must be a source of perpetual fear, and never of confidence.

The remarks which are made in this pamphlet are in unison with our own sentiments; and nothing embittered their perusal, except the reflection that, *for certain reasons*, the adoption of them was not very probable. Yet in spite of this consideration, good ideas and salutary advice merit record; and perhaps some benefit may issue from spirited and liberal discussions, though the whole measure for which writers and speakers contend be not immediately carried. This author attributes the grievances of the Irish people to their 'separation into two *casts*, one of which is every thing with the Government, and the other nothing.' He accuses the English ministry of having twice broken its faith with the Catholics; he calls on it to perform its stipulations; and he bids it either 'exterminate the Catholics, or remove for ever all disabilities and distinctions.' The Protestant ascendancy is matter of bitter complaint; and it is observed that, had Ireland been put on the footing of Scotland, armies would not have been necessary to repel invasion, and guard against treason.

Judicious replies are given to the several reasons which have been urged against Catholic Emancipation; and if, as this writer recommends the ministers of the Catholic persuasion were in the pay of Government, no fear could be entertained that they would preach up rebellion. The rejection of four millions out of five in a nation from the chance of civil promotion, and from the honours due to successful merit, rouses his indignation; especially as he is aware how much exclusive enjoyment generates intolerant presumption. Assuming it as a sound principle of legislation, that the Government should be on good terms with the nation which it rules, he advises our rulers to conciliate the regards of the Irish Catholics, by an establishment of their religion, and by a removal of all restraints. According to him, no difficulty would attend the execution of the plan.

'The Irish government allows, at present, salaries to the ministers of the Presbyterian worship. There seems to be no reason why the same indulgence should not be granted to the Catholics. Policy, as well as justice, demands it. A small, but independent hierarchy, ought to be established. Supposing the parishes to amount to 1200, allowing a salary of 100l. per annum to each resident priest, and 400l to each bishop, the amount of the whole establishment would be less than 160,000l. per annum: an ecclesiastical establishment not of a very splendid nature, but perhaps sufficient for the moderate wants of the Catholics, and conformable to the principles, not of encouragement, but of toleration, on which it is proposed to acquiesce in their demands. This establishment, when compared to the Protestant, which exceeds half a million, furnishes a proof, at how cheap a rate an institution of so much importance can be purchased.'

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The author professes to cherish no hostile views against the Protestant Established Church of Ireland: but we are of opinion that his subsequent remarks on tithes will not be regarded as symptoms of a very friendly disposition. Be this, however, as it may, his examination of the causes of the present discontents in Ireland, and the remedies which he prescribes, prove him to be well acquainted with the subject, and to be a man of no ordinary penetration.

Art. 12. *A Letter from a Gentleman in Ireland to an English Member of the United Parliament;* containing Strictures on a Pamphlet, intitled "*Thoughts on the Protestant Ascendancy in Ireland.*" With some Facts and Observations calculated to throw Light on the Catholic Question. 8vo. 3s. Hatchard.

Where temper is most wanted, we generally find the least. Great questions, involving important interests, excite violent passions; and when the appeal is professedly made to reason, the pure reason of the case is not calmly contemplated. If the author of "Thoughts," &c. has erred in one extreme, we are sure that this writer has transgressed on the other. The former is here called 'a declamatory pamphleteer,' and Catholic Emancipation is termed 'the watch-word of Sedition.' What *light* can this language *throw* on the great question; a question which, though decided for the present by the Legislature, must from its nature continue to afford matter for controversy? It is contended, by this writer, and those of his party, that the nature of Popery cannot alter, and that its ascendancy must ever be dangerous to a Protestant Government. Without doubt, were the majority of the Empire Catholic, this effect would follow, whatever were the dogmas of the religion; and while Ireland enjoyed a separate parliament, this reasoning would obtain as far as it regarded Ireland: but now that the Irish representation is amalgamated with that of the whole empire, the danger of the dominancy of the Catholic interest appears to be greatly diminished; and it remains a fair subject of inquiry whether the Catholics in Ireland might not enjoy every civil privilege, or be put on a par with the Protestants, with as much safety to the Empire, as the establishment of Catholicism in Quebec. Yet whatever be the view which a politician in England may take of the subject, to a Protestant in Ireland, the projected emancipation must be a matter of alarm; for whether the proportion of Catholics to Protestants be as 3 to 4, or as 4 to 5, the grant of equal privileges must eventually destroy the ascendancy of the latter. Thus the claim is urged with hope on one side, and resisted with fear on the other. Can the difficulty be ever obviated?—In the meantime, let the Catholics weigh the arguments of the Protestants, particularly those which represent the danger of their Emancipation in consequence of certain politico-theological tenets, which are stated to constitute the very essence of Catholicism, and to render perfect allegiance to a Protestant King impossible. Let them consider this writer's statements on this head, and meet them fairly. Let them shew that their system is accommodating, and so model their church-government as effectually to annihilate the faintest pretext of an appeal to the Pope. A Protestant Government has a right to demand this; and hitherto, it must be confessed,

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confessed, the Catholics, Clergy, and Laity, have not been explicit. Indeed the author of the letter before us states facts which ought not to be overlooked in reference to this part of the controversy. He lays great stress on the circumstance that those tests, which the Catholic laity were willing to give in proof of their loyalty to the State, were condemned by their Clergy as *unlawful*. The object of the Popish petition is thus delineated:

'When I look to the Popish Petition, when I consider the period at which it is brought forward, and the various circumstances connected with it, I see the prevalence of two factions, that, with views finally opposite, join in effecting one common object. Of the separatists, who either avowedly, or under the name of anti-unionists, labour to dissolve all connexion between the two countries, and to establish an independent Republic or Monarchy united with France, it is unnecessary to make any observation. The danger from them is obvious. On the popish faction I have to observe, that in whatever view the Petition they have forced forward may be considered, they will be deceived who consider it in any other light than that of a contest for power. A contest that will only be fed by concession, and that will never end as long as there is any thing to be demanded on one side, or conceded on the other.'

The author, with more passion than patriotism, dares the Catholics to resistance.

Art. 13. *An Abstract of the Arguments on the Catholic Question.* 8vo. 1s. Budd.

This pamphlet should have been intitled *Arguments in favour of the Catholic claims.* It is here contended that the act of Union implied a stipulation to harmonize the country; that the case of Ireland is analogous to that of Scotland; that the dominant religion of the former should be established equally with that of the latter; and that this is the only remedy for disaffection.

Art. 14. *A Letter to the Honourable C. J. F. on the Catholic Petition.* 8vo. 3d.

Mr. Fox's voluntary correspondent earnestly endeavours to shew that the emancipation of the Catholics in Ireland would clash with the provisions of the Coronation Oath.

Art. 15. *Thoughts on the Kingdom of Ireland,* written in the Year 1785; during the Debates in the British Parliament, on certain Propositions, commonly called "The Irish Propositions." 8vo. 1s. Hatchard.

The principal feature of this pamphlet is the hint which it humbly offers to the Sovereign, to permit the Prince of Wales to receive the first coronation of an Irish Crown in Dublin, and thus to become a *Collega imperii.* The residence of a Prince's Court, it is thought, would recall the Absentee, enliven manufactures and commerce, and promote the attachment of the people at large to the Government: When these Thoughts were written, the idea was at least practicable. but the Union of the two Islands into one Kingdom has raised an insuperable objection to the adoption of the measure.

Art.

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Art. 16. *Observations on the Petition of the Roman Catholics of Ireland,* and its dangerous Tendency to all Parties. By a Friend to the Constitution in Church and State. 8vo. 1s. 6d Stockdale.

Among tenets adverse to the State, this writer enumerates the believe of transubstantiation, and of Purgatory, and the worship of angels, saints, and images. These doctrines and practices may be unscriptural, but we cannot perceive in what way they militate against the dischargeof civil duties. With as little reason, he maintains the impolicy of aeceding to the Catholic claims, because 'it is not their nature to be quiet.' The topics which he principally urges are the necessity of restrictive measures for the general good, and the impolicy of attempting too many reforms. He supposes that, had the petition been granted, Oxford and Cambridge would have swarmed with Catholic Students. What a groundless fear!

Art. 17. *A seriaus Examination of the Roman Catholic Claims,* as set forth in the Petition now pending before Parliament. By the Rev. Thomas Le Mesurier, Rector of Neunton Longville, late Fellow of New College, Oxford. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Rivingtons. Also a Postscript, price 6d.

It is maintained by Mr. Le Mesurier that an acquiescence of the Legislature in the Catholic Claims would have involved in its consequences a direct change of the Constitution as settled at the Revolution; consequently, he employs his pen to oppose the removal of those restraints under which the members of the Romish Church are now placed, and contends that Catholicism ought never to be admitted to more than Toleration in a Protestant State. This clergyman is strong in his expressions: but he must be considered as professionally the advocate of the Protestant interest; and as not indifferent to the change which the measure, had it been carried, must have operated on the Protestant Church of Ireland. He complains that the Catholics have varied materially in setting forth their claims; and because, in one part of the petition, they have employed the terms "Toleration not merely partial but complete," and in another "Equal participation on equal terms," he presumes to tell them that 'in one case they claim Toleration and in the other Equality.' Can any remark be more unfounded, unless it be that which soon follows it, viz. that 'the petitioners have no grievance, no "manifold evils" to complain of, but only of a *disadvantage* inseparable from their profession, which requires of them engagements which interfere with their allegiance to their Sovereign.' With submission, however, to this writer, we should style this something more than a disadvantage. If he states a truth, it is one that is full of manifold evils; and what is worse, of incurable evils. By a subsequent acknowlegement, however, we find that the disadvantage fraught with such evils is not inseparable from the profession of the Catholic Religion; for he allows the possibility of severing the Irish Catholic Church from the see of Rome; and he is persuaded that, when this is accomplished, the Catholics would not long remain separated from the national church, which nearly resembles their own. Yet, though he tells the Catholics that 'there is nothing in our belief but what they believe,' when

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when he is reminded of the growth of popery, his Protestant zeal awakes; and he calls on every pious man 'to discourage the extension of a communion which has essentially corrupted the true religion.'

Mr. Le M. thinks that too little attention has been paid to the members of the Protestant Church in Ireland; and that too many concessions have been made to the Catholics of that kingdom, who ought not to enjoy the elective franchise, nor be suffered to occupy a place in the Legislature.

A postscript is added to this examination, occasioned by certain recent publications of Dr. Milner and others; in which Mr. Le M. is severe, with some justice, on Dr. Milner, for assertions in direct violation of the truth of history, and for his casuistry. We deprecate, however, the revival of controversial acrimony beteen Papists and Protestants, and lament that the subject lately agitated seems to have placed the two parties in battle-array against each other. We contemplate it not as an affair of religion, but purely as a question of policy.

Art. 18. *The Roman Catholic Petition unsanctioned;* therefore an unsafe and unconstitutional ground of Emancipation. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Murray.

The object of this writer is to prove that Catholics are and must be subject to the Church of Rome, and in course are and must be objects of suspicion. It is positively maintained that the Roman Catholics must be directed, ruled, and *sanctioned* by that church:—that to their present petition they have no such *sanction*;—that their statement of principles, (however sound in themselves,) to which a faithful adherence is not in their power, can be no ground for a solid and lasting compact between Government and them;—and that, for these reasons, a Protestant Parliament, bound as it is by every tie to guard our established and constitutional rights, cannot comply with the prayer of their *unsanctioned* petiton.

'Holy Church,' it is remarked, 'is mute,' while the Laity speak to Protestants, peace, amity, and good will; and this writer cries "Beware," and points his finger to history.

Art. 19. *A Letter on Irish Affairs, addressed to the Public.* By Sir James Foulis, Bart. 8vo. 1s. Richardsons.

With the other advocates for the Catholic Emancipation, Sir James F. represents Ireland as having not long ago been divided into two Parties, on one of which sovereign power was conferred, while the other was oppressed by penal and disqualifying enactments; the Government, however, he remarks, observing the fatal effects of this persecution, abated of its severity towards the oppressed party, and in consequence Ireland began to flourish. He admits it as probable that, when the Catholics enjoy equal laws with the Protestants, power will pass from the latter to the former in consequence of their superior number. He approves of the union: but he represents it as incomplete till the disqualifying code is removed: a generous confession, this, for a Protestant to make; a confession which, he tells us, he is prompted to avow from strong fellow-feelings as a man and a subject. Sincere as he is in the cause of the Catholics, he wishes

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that they had delayed their petition:—but he is persuaded that, whenever it is granted, the clashing interest of Irish religionists will disappear, and social harmony succeed. His concluding advice to Irishmen, Protestants, and Catholics, is liberal, kind, and patriotic. Such a pamphlet can do no harm, if it effects no good.

Art. 20. *A Fee for an Irish Counsellor;* or Remarks upon the Petition of the Roman Catholics of Ireland to the Parliament of Great Britain for Emancipation; wherein the Pretensions of the Party to Loyalty and Liberality of Sentiment are compared with their Writings; particularly the Address of Counsellor Scully to his Catholic Brethren; Father Gahan's Sermon, and Dr. Troy's pastoral Address, the whole calculated to shew, that Popery, as understood and practised in Ireland, is quite a different Thing from what it is represented to be in the Petition. By a Protestant from Ireland on a visit to England. 8vo. 1s. Hatchard.

So ample a title sufficiently evinces the tendency of this pamphlet. Mr. Scully is censured for calling King William "a Dutch Invader," and for employing *hard speeches* and *vile epithets* against the Protestants. Without travelling to antient popery, the author finds in the publications of the modern Catholics of Ireland, specimens of narrowness and illiberality; and he bids us collect from these specimens what they would do if they had full liberty. He grounds his opposition to the Catholic claims, as do most of the Protestant writers, on the doctrines of Popery being destructive of the peace and happiness of society.

Art. 21. *An Essay on Toleration:* in which the Subject of Catholic Emancipation is considered. By a Presbyter of a Church in England. 8vo. 1s. Williams.

Novelty is not attempted in the present Essay. The author, following Mr. Locke, contends that the care of the soul does not appertain to the province of the civil magistrate; and that it is the policy, as well as the duty of the governments of the earth, to leave religion to itself, and suffer all sects and parties to stand on the same level. It is observed that a difference of opinion is no forfeiture of natural right; and that a man who embraces the worst religious system may be a blameless member of the civil community. The inferences hence drawn are that '*every* Test which excludes a man for his religious principles from the rights of citizenship is oppressive, and that exclusive religious establisments are impolitic and unjust.' Without the least hesitation or reserve, the author condemns the coalition of civil and ecclesiastical politics as productive of great mischief; and he calls on those who presume to deal out spiritual thunders, to shew where Christ has delegated a power to punish heretics and unbelievers. In perfect consistency with these principles, he pleads for the universal toleration of all religions. Toleration he affirms to be the natural ally of truth, whose resources are too vast ever to require the puny and disgraceful aid of persecution. The fears of some well-meaning persons respecting the fate of truth excite a smile. He is pleased to see the haughty Church of Rome supplicating toleration, and crying *peccavi:* but he does not exult. He recommends it to us to overlook

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overlook the past conduct of the Church of Rome, to conquer by benevolence, to raise a fallen foe, and to render ample justice. He replies to the objections of those who would place the Catholics out of the pale of toleration, and sees no good reason against the emancipation which they solicited.

If to the several pamphlets above noticed, we add the protracted debates in both Houses of Parliament, we may be allowed to observe that the subject of the Catholic Claims has excited the most general attention, and received the most ample discussion. It is gratifying to the Catholics to have had their cause pleaded with so much ability, and even enthusiasm; and though the question, by the recent decision of the Legislature, may be considered as for the present at rest, they may be said to stand on respectable ground. The hopes and expectations of one party have been contrasted with the fears and apprehensions of the other. Many liberal Protestants, adverting not to limited views, but to the general merits of the case, have argued in favour of Emancipation; and even from the statements of those who have resisted it, the Catholics may learn not only the policy of disclaiming all connection with the court of Rome, but of establishing a plan among themselves to prevent the necessity of appealing in any instance to an extraneous jurisdiction. We hope that the Protestants of Ireland will avoid all circumstances of irritation, and all expressions of exultation; and that the Catholics will sustain their present disappointment in a dignified manner, silencing the calumny of their enemies by their temper and discretion.

POETRY *and the* DRAMA.

Art. 22. *The School of Reform;* or, how to rule a Husband. A Comedy, in Five Acts, as performed at the Theatre Royal, Covent-Garden. By Thos. Morton, Esq. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Longman and Co. 1805.

Some of the incidents in this piece exceed the bounds of probability, and some features in the portraits are rather too highly coloured: but, generally speaking, the characters are well drawn, the dialogue is animated, the morality is commendable, and the interest of the reader is throughout kept alive.

Art. 23. *The Honest Soldier*, a Comedy, in Five Acts. 8vo. pp. 172. 3s. Longman and Co.

It does not appear that this play was ever acted, and its length would be an objection to its being performed. In other respects, also, it does not excite our high commendation. The *Honest Soldier* is so far honest, that his feelings and his purposes are praise-worthy, but the means which he adopts are deception and fraud. The characters and the incidents afford no novelty, and possess no particular attraction, while they sometimes displease by their deviation from nature.

Art. 24. *Who wants a Guinea?* A Comedy, in Five Acts, as performed at the Theatre Royal, Covent-Garden. First acted, Apr 18, 1805. By George Colman, the younger. 8vo. 2s. 6d Longman and Co.

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Mr. Colman has here drawn a lively portrait of a generous individual, who flies to the succour of every fellow-creature that *wants a guinea*, but whose indiscriminate profusion would probably soon leave him without one in his own pocket. The other personages are strongly marked; some wit, and more broad humour enliven the scene; and we should suppose that the whole pleases much on representation.

Art. 25. *The Will for the Deed.* A Comedy, in Three Acts, as performed at the Theatre Royal, Covent-Garden. Written by Thomas Dibdin. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Longman and Co. 1805.

We must confess that we have been diverted by the whim and farcicality displayed in this drama, as well as pleased with many of its sentiments. It is written *more Dibdiniano;* and not only the piece, and the title of the piece, but the *dedication*, is a *play upon words:* yet we hope that Mr. D. does not always *make a joke* of his friends. The *business* of this comedy is not new; except in the characters of the theatrical manager, whose speeches are made up of the titles of plays, and the sign-painting landlord, whose discourse is interlarded with heraldic mottoes: both caricatured, undoubtedly, but both provoking risibility. Truly, in such times as these, the man who excites laughter and good humour is a benefactor to the state: scarce as things are, these commodities are among the scarcest. Mr. Colman and Mr. Dibdin deserve public thanks.

Art. 26. *The English Fleet in* 1342. An Historical Comic Opera, in Three Acts, as performed at the Theatre Royal, Covent Garden. Written by Thomas Dibdin. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Longman and Co. 1805.

In order to compose an Opera that should address itself to our patriotic feelings at the present moment, Mr. D. has here gone deep into our historical records; and, in our opinion, his selection is not particularly appropriate. He has indued it, however, with sundry pretty speeches, (*ad captandum*) some drollery, many *jeux de mots*, some pleasing songs,—and a drunken sailor, as full of gallantry as of liquor.

Art. 27. *The Cabinet*, a Comic Opera, in Three Acts, first performed at the Theatre Royal, Covent-Garden, 9th Feb. 1802, Written by Thomas Dibdin. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Longman and Co. 1805.

The usual operatic assemblage of cruel parents, fond lovers, pert chambermaids, and adroit valets, is here presented to the reader; enlivened, as is also usual with Mr. Dibdin, with point, pun, and poetry.

Art. 28. *Poems: chiefly Tales.* By W. Hutton, F. A. S. 8vo. 7s. 6d. Boards. Bickerstaff.

If the infirmities of age may be soothed by the amusement of rhiming, who would be so hard-hearted as to interdict the pleasing occupation? Some severities, however, which not unfrequently appear in this author against the order of the clergy, may chance to give offence to that body:—but they must recollect that these satires are chiefly levelled at the clergy of former times. Nevertheless, they are certainly *irreverent;* and in consequence the author must expect a sentence

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sentence "*without benefit of clergy*." There are also several gross indelicacies committed in these compositions, and on such we must inflict our civil rod, while we resign the rod ecclesiastic to those to whom it belongs. Independently of these objections, Mr. Hutton's tales possess some humour as well as much *gallantry*, and will amuse the good natured reader.

Art. 29. *The Sabbath*. A Poem. 12mo. 3s. Boards. Longman and Co.

We have here a short poem, with notes subjoined, which occupy the greater half of the volume: but nevertheless we may describe it to those who understand Greek, as ολιγαντε φιλοντε. It is a commendable performance, and the sentiments of the author are truly pious, generous, and humane; such as become an Englishman and a Christian.

The following passage contains some lines which are beautifully descriptive:—

'But what the loss of country to the woes
Of banishment and solitude combined!
Oh! my heart bleeds to think there now may live
One miserable man, the remnant of a wreck,
Cast on some desart island of the main
Immense, that stretches from the Cochin shore
To Acapulco. Motionless he sits,
As is the rock his seat, gazing whole days
With wandering eye o'er all the watery waste;
Now striving to believe the Albatross
A sail appearing on the horizon's verge;
Now vowing ne'er to cherish other hope
Than hope of death. Thus pass his weary hours,
Till welcome evening warn him that 'tis time,
Upon the shell-notch'd calendar to mark
Another day, another dreary day.—
The hermit of the deep, not unobserved
The Sabbath passes,—'tis his great delight.
Each seventh eve he marks the farewell ray,
And loves, and sighs to think,—that setting sun
Is now empurpling SCOTIA's mountain tops,
Or, higher risen, slants athwart her vales,
Tinting with yellow light the quivering throat
Of early lark, while woodland birds below
Chaunt in the dewy shade. Thus, all night long
He watches; while the rising moon describes
The progress of the day in happier lands.
And now he almost fancies that he hears
The chiming from his native village church;
And now he sings, and fondly hopes the strain
May be the same that sweet ascends at home
In congregation full,—where, not without a tear,
They are remembered who in ships behold

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The wonders of the deep:— he sees the hand,
The widow'd hand, that veils the eye suffus'd:
He sees his orphan boy look up and strive
The widow'd heart to sooth. His spirit leans on God.'

We were pleased at meeting with the ensuing sentiment, which is of noble import, and is taken from a passage in the book of Job, chap. xxix. v. 16.

'Above all duties, let the rich man *search*
Into the cause he knoweth not.'

This is a department of moral conduct which we believe is less frequently fulfilled than some others, and might be happily enforced by religious instructors.

Against the Slave Trade, the author speaks with becoming abhorrence. He also, in a note, justly reprobates the frequency of oaths in a system of legislation:

'How unspeakably contemptible is that system of legislation, which acts on the supposition that *oaths* are the proper checks to fraud against the revenue!'

We trust, however, that this reflection, as glancing at our own system, confines itself to that particular part: otherwise it would be too severe, and unworthy of the good sense of the author.

Art. 30. *Tobias:* a Poem, in Three Parts. By the Rev. Luke Booker, LL.D. 8vo. 3s. 6d. Boards. Booker. 1805.

Whoever peruses this poem will be ready to admit that Dr. Booker has greatly improved the apocryphal story of Tobit. He has kept tolerably close to the original, but not with such servility as to represent Tobit's blindness as the effect of "sparrows muting warm dung into his eyes;" and had he taken other liberties with the original fable, his poem might have been improved. The similies and illustrations are elegant additions, which relieve a very deficient narrative. In many parts of the blank verse, Dr. B. is a manifest copyist of Milton. When we read

——— 'as when opposing spheres
Eclipse the sun's resplendent orb . . . with dread
Filling the nations,'

can we help recollecting one of the most beautiful similies in the Paradise Lost? Nor, when the following description meets the eye,

——— 'The delightful scene
Where God had placed them . . . stor'd with ev'ry good
The roving eye to please, or warm the heart:
Flow'rs of all scent and hue, and pendent fruits
Nectareous,'

can our memories be so treacherous as not to present to our mental view the picture of Eden?—Some of the lines are very prosaic, and some of the circumstances too trivial to be recorded in majestic verse. It was not requisite to inform us that the sum paid by Gabael to Azarias (when the angel was sent on the errand of a banker's clerk) was 'told duly to a doit.' On the whole, however, the execution is commendable,

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mendable, and calculated to leave sublime impressions of piety on the mind. It is unnecessary to detail the incidents. As a specimen of the poetry, we extract that passage in which Azarias discovers himself to be the angel Raphael, and which is exhibited in a vignette:

'He came, and heard, well pleas'd,
Their gen'rous purpose; then apart he led
Them to a scene sequester'd, which no foot
Might tread intrusive,—no rude eye profane.
It was a garden where commingling sweets,
Breath'd from innum'rous flow'rs fill'd all the air,
And shadowy trees with luscious fruits were hung.
—There, ere he spake, amaz'd, with radiant light
They saw his brow encircled, and his form
Assume surpassing grace. On either cheek
Sate more than mortal beauty,—bloom more soft
Than tint of dewy rose. Benignant Love
Beam'd from his piercing eye; and lustrous wings,
Whiter than cygnet's down, expanding grew
On his fair shoulders. Round him was a robe
Cerulean wreath'd of gossamer—instinct
With stars of living light, and dropt with gold.
While through the ambient air such sweetness stole,
That earth seem'd heav'n.

'Prone on their faces, fell
The wondering sire and son: when, mild as blows
The whispering zephyr at the vernal morn,
These accents met their ear; "Arise, my Friends!
The friends of God and man! and fear no ill.
Raphael am I, the Messenger of Heav'n;
One of its holy Angels which present
The pray'rs of saints before the glorious throne
Of the Most High. Thine, Tobit! when Distress
And Blindness wrung thy heart, I pitying bore
To yonder seat of Mercy. Frequent still
Intreat the Sov'reign Ear of Boundless Love.
Pray'r has ascending wings which soar to heav'n.
Like that vast ladder, by the Patriarch kenn'd
In visionary dream, with angels throng'd,
Pray'r opes communion free, from needy man
To Bounty's God, and brings his blessings down."

Dr. B. has given notice that, if another edition of Tobias be required, additional poems will be added to form a handsome volume, and the additions shall be separately furnished to the purchasers of the present poem. This declaration evinces honourable feelings, to which authors in general are not sufficiently alive.

Art. 31. *Original Poems.* By Thomas Green Fessenden, A. M. Crown 8vo. pp. 200. 5s. Boards Hurst.

A vein of pleasantry and sportive humour is manifested by this American writer, which cannot fail to amuse and conciliate the reader, when he is disposed to quit his serious studies, and to welcome a play-

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ful guest —Some of the poems allude to political events in the western hemisphere; others describe the manners of the people in some parts of the United States; and wherever a proper opportunity occurs, the author takes care to inculcate on the minds of his countrymen a spirit of manly independence, and a rational love of liberty.

'The EAGLE of FREEDOM with rapture behold,
Overshadow our Land with his plumage of gold!
The flood-gates of Glory are open on high,
And Warren and Mercer * descend from the sky!
They come from above
With a message of love,
To bid us be firm and decided;
" At Liberty's call,
Unite one and all,
For you conquer, unless you're divided.
Unite, and the foes to your Freedom defy,
Till the Continent sinks, and the Ocean is dry.
" Americans, seek no occasion for war,
The rude deeds of rapine still ever abhor;
But if in defence of your rights you should arm,
Let toils ne'er discourage, nor dangers alarm.
For foes to your peace
Will ever increase,
If Freedom and Fame you should barter,
Let those Rights be yours,
While Nature endures,
For OMNIPOTENCE gave you the Charter!
Then foes to our freedom we'll ever defy,
Till the Continent sinks, and the ocean is dry!"

We recommend these patriotic lines to the attention of our own countrymen, as worthy of a great and independent nation. In the mean time, we are happy to observe that this author expresses his wishes to preserve and perpetuate harmony between his country and England. We trust and hope that such a disposition is cordially cherished by the free-born inhabitants of both states.

Art. 32. *The Universe;* a Poem. By Henry Baker, F.R.S. F.S.A. A new Edition, with Notes, and the Life of the Author. Crown 8vo. 2s. Vidler.

Wholesome truths are inculcated in this poem, respecting the existence and supremacy of the Deity; and the numbers are sufficiently correct The author wrote at the close of the 17th century, and his work is now republished to perpetuate his merits and utility in correcting scepticism and infidelity. The biographical notices of Mr. Baker, and the notes, are additional recommendations.

Art. 33. *Poems*, by Charles A. Elton. Crown 8vo. 5s. Boards. Longman and Co.

The reader will find this a pleasing collection of poems, sonnets,

* Warren and Mercer were both distinguished personages, who fell in the war which separated America from Great Britain.'

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and translations from Horace and others. We extract one or two specimens:

'WRITTEN DURING ILLNESS.

'Tho' sickly languor slow restrains,
And yet forbids to range the plains;
Love hastes on Fancy's wings away,
O'er hills and plains with thee to stray.

'On native Avon's woodland side
Thy sylphid step in thought I guide:
Now gaze o'er ev'ry fancied charm,
Now loit'ring press thy captive arm.

'My soul is of thy soul possest!
The same heart beats within my breast;
Be Health's delighting influence thine,
And O! I feel it doubly mine.

'Tho' Spring to me her balms deny,
Let ev'ry gale that woo's the sky
Impart its whisper'd sweets to thee,
And ev'ry gale is dear to me.

'What tho' around my lonely bed
No sun his cheering splendour shed,
Yet if he light thy heav'n-blest way,
My darksome chamber smiles in day!'

'THE COMPOSITION OF A KISS.

'JOANNES SECUNDUS.

'Erst Cytherea rapt in sweet employ,
A soft invention fram'd of wanton joy;
With mystic skill her temp'ring hands infuse
The nectar's fragrance and ambrosia's dews;
And honey, which the god of am'rous art
Stole from the Bee, yet thrilling with the smart;
She blends the perfume which the Violet throws,
The balmy spoils of ev'ry opening Rose;
And adds to these enticements o'er and o'er,
Of winning wiles a thousand thousand more;
Adds all those eager tremblings of desire,
That whirl of sense, that gently frenzying fire,
Which in its magic round her zone contains,
And tender tumults and delicious pains;
Then pours on Sara's lip the mingled bliss,
And names the quintessence of joy—a Kiss!'

We occasionally detect an inaccuracy or an ineleganee in these compositions: but, generally speaking, Mr. Elton is a better poet than many votaries of the nine who come before us.

POLITICAL.

Art. 34. *An Exposure of the Persecution of Lord Melville:* in a Letter to an intimate Acquaintance. 8vo. 1s. Hatchard.

By the word *Persecution*, employed in its title, this pamphlet will very

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very naturally be attributed to the zeal of private friendship: but the author avers that he is wholly unacquainted with Lord M., that he never was in his company, and saw him only once, at a distance. Supposing that this attempt to stem the torrent of public odium now bearing against Lord M. be generous, and altogether disinterested, it is not very discreet to stigmatize public inquiry, and the proceedings in consequence of the 10th Report of the Naval Commissioners, as measures of *Persecution*. Every caution should be given against pre-judging the case of this Nobleman: but, pending public discussion, in which the correctness of his conduct is brought into doubt, some unpopularity will necessarily alight on him. If he can pass the fiery ordeal of inquiry, this unpopularity will be transient, and his future triumph will even surpass his present mortification. It seems strange, after this writer's declared ignorance of Lord M., that he should undertake to explain that statesman's motives, and to tell us that his Lordship '*felt* confident in his rectitude, and had the firmest reliance on his own innocence.' How has he acquired this knowlege of what has passed in Lord M.'s breast?—As this writer ventures to term the reasonings of the Naval Commissioners 'extra-judicial elaborations,' we leave it to our readers to infer the character of his advocacy.

Art. 35. *An Attempt to explain the late mysterious Conduct of the Right Hon. William Pitt:* with Observations on some late political Events. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Clarke.

Absolute mysteries, whether in religion or politics, cannot be expected to emit sparks of light by the application of the hardest friction of inquiry; though there may be some things approaching to the nature of the mysterious, which, by examination, may be made a little luminous. The figuring *in* and *out* between Mr. Pitt and Mr. Addington ceases now, we believe, to be inveloped in darkness. Both gentlemen have played their parts in the pantomime to admiration. The angry scene was well acted, and the reconciliation was capital! When will a scramble for power and honours be superseded by a truly patriotic spirit?

MEDICAL.

Art 36. *Outlines of a Plan, calculated to put a Stop to the Progress of the Malignant Contagion which rages on the Shores of the Mediterranean,* if, notwithstanding every Precaution to the contrary, it should unfortunately make its Way into this Country. By Richard Pearson, M.D. 8vo. 1s. 6d. C. and R. Baldwin. 1804.

The danger, which existed at the time when this pamphlet made its appearance, has now fortunately passed away: but, as our extensive commercial relationship with every part of the globe makes our island liable to be visited by diseases which are not our own, we much approve of any attempt to call the attention of the public to the best means of guarding against the effects of such an unfortunate occurrence, if ever it should take place. It is the business of Government to watch over the national health; and we are happy to find that they have lately sanctioned a plan for preventing the spread of contagious fevers in the Metropolis, by a grant of a handsome sum of money

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money to the fever institution; and that they have also adopted measures, with which we are not yet acquainted in detail, for preventing the importation of infectious diseases, or the diffusion of them should they ever be introduced. The judicious author of this pamphlet particularly insists on the necessity of enforcing a rigid quarantine, whenever ships arrive in this country from suspected ports: but, as a quarantine does not of itself alone afford a sufficient security against danger, he thinks that there should be other precautionary measures adopted, in order that contagion may be immediately detected and suppressed, if it should gain ingress into this country. His plan is this:

'For the accomplishment of an object of so much moment, it is proposed that COMMITTEES OF HEALTH be established in all the principal sea-ports throughout the kingdom. They should consist of an adequate number of physicians and surgeons, assisted, according to circumstances, by the magistrates and clergy. Their business should be to examine into the health of the sea port towns in which they reside; and whenever a febrile disorder breaks out, that seizes in succession three or four individuals residing under the same roof, or having had recent communication with each other; that is rapid in its course, and accompanied with symptoms of unusal malignancy; immediately to resort to the system of *separation, fumigation*, &c strict orders being at the same time given, to burn all the bedding and clothes that had been used by the sick; and the house or houses in which such a disorder should occur should be thorongly fumigated, white-washed, and cleansed. These precautions are the more necessary, inasmuch as the Plague, in some of its most fatal forms, and especially on its first breaking out, is not marked by its characteristic eruptions.

'In like manner, there should be instituted a GENERAL BOARD OF HEALTH in London, not only as the capital of the united kingdom, and consequently maintaining a frequent communication with every other part, but likewise as the largest port-town. This General Board should use the same vigilance in their inquiries into the health of the port and city of London, as the provincial committees in their respective towns; and should resort to the same means of suppression, in case of a strong suspicion, or actual proofs of infection. All these committees should keep a regular journal of their proceedings, and transmit to government a statement of such proceedings as often as shall appear necessary. It would further be desirable that the General Board of Health should draw up a set of Instructions for the use of the beforementioned committees, and of medical practitioners in all parts of the kingdom.'

Dr. P. thinks that separate houses for the sick, the convalescent, and the suspected, should be fitted up; and where there is an opportunity of having such accommodations on water, he considers this mode, from the evidence which exists on the subject, as highly desirable. There seems to be no occasion for alarming the feelings of the public on the subject of danger from imported contagion: but, at the same time, we cannot help observing that it would be wise and prudent, and worthy of the ministers of a great nation, to provide, as much

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much as it is in their power, against the possibility of such an occurrence, by measures which would meet the evil at its approach, and stifle it before it had begun to act. 'Like a small spark, contagion is easily suppressed in the beginning; but, if once it be suffered to gain strength and spread, it becomes wholly unrestrainable, seizing upon and destroying all before it.'

Art. 37. *Report of a Medical Committee on the Cases of supposed Small-pox after Vaccination*, which occurred in Fulwood's Rents, Holborn, in August and September 1804; with an Account of some subsequent Inoculations. 8vo. 1s. Highley.

In executing a trust which was reposed in them by several of their professional brethren, the Committee who publish this report appear to us to have acted with judgment and candour. They have examined the various circumstances of these cases with minute attention, and have formed their conclusions with a perfect regard to the evidence before them. At a time when medical men were considered to be so much prejudiced in favour of vaccine inoculation, as to deny any portion of weight to the many examples of its inefficacy which were industriously brought forwards in various quarters, it was incumbent on them to shew that they did not fear to make a fair investigation into any respectable contravening evidence. This has been done in the present pamphlet, of which we shall give a general outline.

Two children in Fulwood's Rents, Holborn, were stated to be affected with natural small pox, from exposure to its contagion in the court in which they lived. It was therefore necessary to inquire,

1st, Whether these children had gone through the regular cow-pox, and

2d, Whether the disease, which they afterward had, was small-pox?

The proof that these children had cow-pox rests on the following evidence; viz.

'1st, The register of the Cases at the Small pox Hospital, of which an exact copy is given in the Report.

'2d, The declaration of Mr. Wachsel, resident inoculator at the Hospital, who considers the appearance, and progress of Vaccination, in these children, to have been perfectly regular, and satisfactory.—

'3dly, The cicatrices, or marks, remaining on their arms; which marks appear to the members of the Committee to be such as are usually left after Vaccine Inoculation.'

In order to determine whether these children, or either of them, were subsequently affected with small-pox, the Committee obtained the evidence of Mr. Morgan, who attended the younger one. This gentleman gave them a journal of the case, in which he noticed the appearance and progress of the pustules, which are reported to have been succeeded on the 12th day by dry brown scabs. Some of the pustules maturated only partially, and others not at all. The journal is given at length.

For the purpose of ascertaining decisively whether the pustules, which thus occurred after cow-pox inoculation, were really variolous, two children were inoculated with matter taken from the child attended by Mr. Morgan, and both of them were considered by the Committee

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Committee as having small-pox in the usual way. From one of those children, three others were likewise inoculated; and in two of them a disease was produced, which in the opinion of the Committee accorded with inoculated small pox.—That the nature of the disease might be still more clearly marked, a child was inoculated with matter from one of the second series of inoculations, and 'both the local and general symptoms of the disease' which followed 'were evidently the same as in the inoculated small pox.'—Some time afterward, the last mentioned child was inoculated with fluid variolous matter, inserted into two punctures in each arm: but the punctures healed without having excited any degree of inflammation.

The last case mentioned in this Report does not relate to the precise object of it. It is an instance of a child, who had been vaccinated three years before, resisting the variolous influence both by contagion and by inoculation.

The Committee finish their Report by the following observations:

'After having faithfully reported the particulars of the investigation proposed, (page 3), the Committee begs leave to observe, that there seems no reason to question the regular progress of the vaccination in Nancy and Mary Hodges, nor the existence of the Small-pox more than two years afterwards in the latter, there being no material variation from the usual course of symptoms, either in the disease of Mary Hodges, or in the cases of inoculation with matter taken from her pustules.—The Committee, however, feels it a duty to remark, that the above facts are, not to be considered as militating against the general practice of vaccination. Some well authenticated, though rare cases have been stated, in which the natural Small-pox occurred twice in the same person. A few other instances are recorded of persons, who, after having undergone the inoculated Small-pox, nevertheless took the disease by infection: yet these cases were not deemed conclusive against the advantages of variolous inoculation, nor do they seem to have impeded its progress.

'In every country where European science is diffused, the general preventive power of vaccine inoculation with regard to the Small pox, has been fully ascertained, and cannot now be affected by the result of a few detached cases, which, by future observations and experiments, may be accounted for satisfactorily.—The Committee, therefore, with one accord, subscribes to the established opinion, that if vaccination were universally adopted, it would afford the means of finally exterminating the Small-pox.'

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 38. *The Dignity of Human Nature*, an Essay. 8vo. pp. 69. 2s. Clarke. 1805.

The author of this tract is Mr. Jerningham, already known to the public by several very pleasing performances. The same character applies to this essay; which is a piece of attractive declamation in favour of a notion which, were it false, we should feel little inclination to controvert. Mr. Jerningham is of opinion that man commences existence uninfected with guilt, pure as the lily breaking through the green covering! that the human heart is impregnated with a celestial ray; that the mind is winged with a capacity to

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to reach the summit of virtuous and illustrious atchievements; and that the intellectual form has not lost "all her original brightness," nor appears degraded but in the "excess of glory obscured." In support of these positions, he alleges facts from antient and modern history; and he farther grounds them on the doctrines of revelation, on the principles of our nature, and on the attributes of the Divinity.

This author's manner is rather agreeable than argumentative, more winning than energetic; his style is more florid than elegant; and his allusions, if for the most part happy, are sometimes trite. Candour, however, appears in each stroke of his pen; while a liberal spirit, a love of truth, and a zeal for virtue, ever animate his pages. If we be not much instructed by the perusal of this work, we may be made better; and all that is excellent in our nature is roused and invigorated - We agree with the concluding sentiment of the writer, that the belief of the original guilt of our nature is most unfavourable to the attainment of that sublimity of character, of which so many instances occur in history.

Art. 39. *Reflections on Duelling.* By Rowland Ingram, B. D. 8vo. pp. 104. 3s. Hatchard. 1804.

The subject of Duelling has been frequently canvassed both by the preacher and the moralist; and various arguments of much weight and solidity have been adduced, to prove its inconsistency with reason, with the welfare of society, and with the express declarations of scripture. Still, however, this baneful practice has continued to prevail; and the most solemn appeals to the heart and understanding of men, in other respects kind and gentle and polished in their manners, are made in vain. The tyranny of custom, and the false shame of resisting its control, have more weight with the fashionable world than all the reasonings which can be collected against it.—We would recommend those, however, who are inclined to reflect on the consequences of their actions, to consider the arguments which Mr. Ingram has brought forwards against the practice of duelling. In this pamphlet, he has not only pointed out the absurdity of the custom, and its evil effects on the public manners, but he has quoted the highest authorities to shew that it is repugnant to the law of the land, to the principles of good morals, and to the precepts of the christian religion.

With respect to warfare and the profession of arms, Mr. Ingram agrees with the Bishop of London, whose lectures on St. Matthew he quotes, that the christian religion sanctions a military life. We cannot, however, persuade ourselves that the words of the Baptist, the commendation bestowed on Cornelius, or any other passage in the New Testament, is sufficient to establish such a position. The whole tenor and spirit of that religion is in direct opposition to such an hypothesis. Although the Baptist carefully avoided any expression to the soldiers which might stimulate them to sedition and licentiousness, and although a leader of the band might be a devout man, yet it can hardly be inferred from such incidents, that an implied sanction is given to the profession of arms.—On the contrary, let it be observed, that, when one of the adherents of Jesus drew a sword and smote the servant of the High Priest, the * rebuke which Jesus gave him was for more conclusive against the tenet of Dr. Porteus, than any which

* See Matthew, xxvi. 52.

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can appear to support it.—We cannot say more on this subject in contradiction both to the Bishop and Mr. Ingram, than by quoting the sentiments of Mr. Ingram himself: 'Were the precepts of religion and true morality generally adopted as the fashionable and only reputable rules of life, mankind *would live in peace.*' In effect, war may be considered as a duel between two nations; and the same principles of moral conduct, which apply to any two contending individuals, whatever politicians may say to the contrary, apply with equal force to contending nations. If, like the armies of the Trojans and Greeks, they were to select a representative on either side to determine the war in single combat, the case would be resolved into that of a simple duel, and its repugnancy to every sound principle would be fully apparent:—or, as Mr. Ingram observes in respect to duelling, which applies as well to a *national duel*,

'If the mind once suffer itself stedfastly to survey, in its genuine and undisguised colours, the moral complexion of a duel, either every rational obligation must have been previouly disclaimed, or the resolution must spontaneously follow, for ever and unalterably to abjure the ferocious combat: and this resolution, a just conception of the human character, instead of engendering chimerical fears of subsequent censure, will encourage and confirm. The life of the individual may be a public blessing of wide extent; nor ever is it in fact more truly valuable, or more likely to be so appreciated by others, than when in the hands of one, who can best assign to it its true value, neither timidly parsimonious of it, when his country, or any just necessity, points to danger, nor absurdly lavish of it, when a thousand calls of duty forbid the risk, and no palpable good requires it. And he who maintains, or hazards it in strict regard to the purposes for which it was conferred, must have far too strong a hold upon the hearts and interests of all connected with him, to sustain a diminution of their esteem at the instant when he merits its amplest measure; much less to be long regarded with unreflecting scorn, or otherwise to be impressed by the attacks of calumny, than the file by the viper's broken tooth. Placed in the identical circumstances, in which numbers have imagined that they could only preserve their reputation by death or murder, it might be his triumphant lot to present to the world an example, which should forcibly attract, not blame, but heartfelt applause,—an example, which publicity would only serve to exalt, as a signal precedent, worthy of the most emulous imitation. Let me not, however, be thought too sanguine. The establishment of such a precedent is in the probability of events, perhaps, to be only expected from characters of superlative weight and settled worth; from characters, to speak more within compass, which are least likely to be involved in the trial. For whoever should decline a duel from principle, would, in consistence with the same principle, cherish with attentive care a strong host of habits, alike formidable in abashing the insolent and powerful to conciliate all besides. In the pages of the Gospel, if no where else, there is a certain temper delineated, which, however it may be derided in words by the petulant and the frivolous, is never viewed in real life, without either willing or reluctant reverence, without love, or without awe.

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'This temper whoever, having once fixed his eyes upon the right path, is resolutely bent upon pursuing the same through life, will see from daily observation upon men and manners, more and more reason to prize and cultivate. From the twofold experience of his own imperfections, and those of other men, he will readily estimate the value of that circumspect forbearance, which will best preclude him both from giving, and from receiving offence: yet by a rigid adherence to his prescribed course, he will scarcely fail of shewing, upon numberless proofs, that his forbearance is not the forbearance of a coward: and that his circumspection is no other, than the watchfulness of the brave sentinel, whose eye is ever directed towards the quarters of the enemy, not for the purpose of eluding, on the approach of danger, but of fulfilling in whatever mode the chance of unforeseen events may require it, the duties of his trustful station.

'At the same time, should any one imagine that his own character is not sufficiently well established to bear him out in a similar conflict with the conceits, and prejudices, and misconstructions of the world; let him remember, that whatever there may have been defective in past conduct, whatever may have been the amount of antecedent faults or weaknesses, though the probability of future misdemeanour may be increased, yet not even the shadow of an apology can hence be urged for the commission of it. For, though it be granted, that he, who has taken one false step, is more likely to take another and another, than one, who has never deviated from his path, yet monstrous indeed would be the doctrine, which should assert, that he, who has unhappily entered on a wrong course, must, as if impelled by an irresistible destiny, necessarily proceed in that course; his follies and indiscretions, instead of opening his eyes, by their consequences, to the error of his ways, being thus converted into an argument for the perpetration of more enormous guilt.'

These sentiments are excellent; and if they were ever to obtain that reception in the world, to which their importance intitles them, wars and fightings would cease both between men, and between multitudes of men. Convinced of the guilt as well as the impolicy of warfare in every shape, the assailant would stay his uplifted arm, and would obey the voice which admonishes him to "put up the sword again into its sheath."

CORRESPONDENCE.

Our Correspondent at Londonderry is informed that we do not recollect to have seen the publication to which he alludes: but as he has given the title only in part, and without any publisher's name, &c. we cannot speak decisively.

An Old Acquaintance will shortly find that we have not forgotten the work which he mentions, and which was posterior in its appearance to that which we lately noticed.

We have not yet received any answer for A. B.

*** The APPENDIX to the last volume of the M. R. is published with this Number.

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THE

MONTHLY REVIEW,

For JUNE, 1805.

ART. I. *Organic Remains of a former World.* An Examination of the mineralized Remains of the Vegetables and Animals of the Antediluvian World; generally termed Extraneous Fossils. By James Parkinson, Hoxton. Vol. I. containing the Vegetable Kingdom. 4to. pp. 472. 2l. 2s. Boards. Robson, Symonds, &c. 1804.

SUCH is the imposing title of a work which we opened with considerable eagerness, though not without some presentiment of deluded expectation. The history of our globe and its productions, even in the present state of human knowlege, is encompassed with difficulty and obscurity; and he must be no timid conjecturer, who shall pretend to assign the number or the effects of its physical revolutions. Men of a speculative turn of mind are, perhaps, never more apt to theorize, than on subjects which lie beyond the sphere of their intelligence. Although Mr. Parkinson professes to be no dogmatist, and usually proposes his sentiments with becoming modesty, we feel constrained to remark that most of his reasonings are hypothetical, and frequently as gratuitous and untenable as the arguments which he labours to overthrow. As the deluge has so amply contributed to *swell* his quarto, he might, in the first instance, have satisfied us with regard to the universality of this awful phænomenon,—a point concerning which even learned theologians are not agreed; and, secondly, when he had succeeded in establishing the orthodox doctrine, he should have taken some pains to convince us that his principal inferences are fairly deducible from the premises. After having conceded the historical fact, that the globe was literally immersed in the waters of the flood during 150 days, we are still unable to reconcile geological appearances to such an event. The partial dislocations of regular strata on the one hand, and the apparently undisturbed deposition of delicate shells and plants on the other, not to mention many more puzzling circumstances, by no means accord with the effects which we should naturally attribute to the general agency of

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aqueous devastation. As a collector of facts, of a particular and interesting description, Mr. Parkinson is intitled to the gratitude of the naturalist: but, as a theorist, we conceive that he imparts no new and steady light to guide us in the path of geological investigation.

If we approve of the epistolary form of this work, we must object to the dulness and inelegance of the execution. By conveying didactic information in a series of letters, the text is unavoidably extended: but the reliefs, of which this mode of writing is susceptible, more than counterbalance the inconvenience of some additional pages. In the course of a friendly correspondence on an abstract or scientific subject, the severity of attention may be, from time to time, agreeably beguiled by little episodical incidents; and illustrations may be presented in popular and familiar language. As this species of composition, however, requires talents and management which few possess, it too often degenerates into tame and diffuse dissertation; to stated portions of which, the title *letter* is prefixed, while that of *section* or *chapter* would have been more appropriate. In the present instance, a journey in some of the counties of England is supposed to suggest the materials of writing: but the parties and their journey are soon forgotten, or, at least, very faintly remembered; and the sequel proceeds in a style more perspicuous than alluring, exhibiting the form, but destitute of the grace and enlivening spirit of literary correspondence. Mr. Parkinson has, indeed, borrowed largely from the stores of his predecessors; and his style sometimes receives a tincture from that of the author whom he happens to quote without the formality of inverted commas. On other occasions, it is heavy or incorrect. We are really disgusted with the vulgar substitution of *lay* for *lie*; and we feel little inclined to tolerate such expressions as '*sufficient of structure*,' '*phosphorescence light*,' '*have so much pyrites enter into their composition*,' '*are daily being made*,' '*the number and variety is so immense*,' '*the formation of peat mosses are*,' '*hypochondriacism*,' '*explorement*,' '*oxygenizement*,' &c. &c. Of incomplete, clumsy, and disjointed sentences, the following among others may be noted:

'Considering that, as similar difficulties must occur to others, a publication would be acceptable, which should comprize, in the general history of these bodies, the more important observations, and opinions, of preceding writers, whether foreign or domestic, he was therefore disposed to take on himself the task of accomplishing, to the best of his abilities, a work of that description.'

'Agricola, whose actual researches were such as must have furnished him with numerous opportunities of determining, that this astonishing change of wood into stone did actually take place; but, at the same

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same time, being influenced by the predominant opinion of that period, that nature amused herself by modelling, in stone, imitations of the forms of organic bodies, he thus endeavours to furnish a mode of distinguishing in which of these classes, the stony substances bearing a vegetable form, are to be arranged.'

'From the intermixture and crystallization of these proceeded those siliceous and spathous veins *which* alternate with and intersect the various strata *which* form that part of the earth *which* has been subjected to our examination.'

Having premised these strictures on the general nature and composition of the work, we shall now direct our attention more particularly to its contents; and this we do with the greater willingness, because they really manifest much honest diligence on a subject which has been hitherto very imperfectly explored.

The oracular letter-writer, to whom the travellers apply for information when they accidentally encounter 'a snake stone,' a 'giant's bone,' or a 'fairy's night cap,' acquaints them that, in the prosecution of his explanations, 'the fossil in its present state will be carefully described, and, whenever it can be done, the situation in which it is found will be pointed out; its primitive mode of existence, and the various properties which, by analogy, may be supposed to have characterized it in its living state, will be inquired into; and the several changes which it has undergone, both in its composition and its structure, will be carefully examined.' This is a fair and an ample promise: but, when we reflect on the unavoidable obscurity in which the subject is involved, we may, without breach of charity, venture to predict that it will be very partially performed. 'So very remote is the period to which our minds are to revert: so loose and so light, are the grounds on which our conjectures are to be built; and so great is the temptation to imagination, to take the place of judgment, that among the several systems of which I shall have occasion to make mention, you, not only, will hardly find one on which you can venture to depend; but you will discover, that the majority, so far from possessing even probability, rather resemble the fictions of poets, than the reasonings of philosophers.'—How often are we tempted to whisper to an author, *de te fabula narratur!*

The slight notices which have been handed down to us, from antiquity, concerning the remains of organized bodies, are mentioned in the third letter. They are chiefly taken from Herodotus, Theophrastus, Eratosthenes, Ovid, Pliny, Strabo, &c. and however unsatisfactory they may appear in point of explanation, they suffice to attest that extraneous fossils had early attracted the attention of the learned and observing part of mankind.

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On the revival of letters, the would-be philosophers tamely acquiesced in the expressions *vis formativa*, *vis plastica*, &c. and in the doctrine of equivocal generation, as adequate solutions of the existence of such organic remains. Fracastorius, in the beginning of the 16th century, appears to have been the first who viewed the subject with the attention of an unprejudiced observer. After having examined the opinions of his predecessors, he inclines to that which supposes that the districts in which marine productions abound were once covered by the sea; which, gradually receding from them, and encroaching on other lands, resigns its former bed to the cultivation and possession of man. Agricola, Gesner, and Bauhin, added each somewhat to the stock of preceding observations. The *Metallotheca Vaticana*, a curious treatise composed by their contemporary, Michael Mercatus, was not published till the year 1717; when it was edited, with valuable notes and figures, by the ingenious Lancisius, physician to the pope.

As Mr. Parkinson has enumerated several of the oryctographic writers, who have flourished since the days of Pliny to the present times, we wish that he had extended his catalogue, and that he had enriched it by biographical and critical notices; the more so, because many of his readers will reckon his performance deficient in sprightliness and variety. Since Mr. P. notices Cuvier's ingenious papers on various fossil remains, we are rather surprized that he never mentions the interesting and splendid work of Faujas de St. Fond, on St. Peter's-hill, near Maestricht; of which we gave an account in the Appendix to our 41st volume, N. S.

Rejecting the exploded notions concerning the origin of organized remains, as well as several of the terms by which they have been imperfectly denoted, Mr. Parkinson intimates that, with the view of avoiding the coinage of a new phraseology, he simply divides all fossil substances into *primary* and *secondary*. Under the first he includes unorganized minerals, as the metals, granites, &c.; and under the second, those which bear indubitable marks of having existed in an organized state. These last, which constitute the subject of the present work, are either of vegetable or of animal origin. In the volume before us, the author treats only of the first class; reserving the animal fossils for the materials of another quarto. The adjustment of these terms, which do not appear to us to merit very nice illustration, occupies a long letter, from which we are at last absolved by the following paragraph:

'Should our old friend Wilton complain of this letter being too dry and unentertaining, remind him, that unless our terms are defined,

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ed, there never can be a hope of our obtaining a good understanding. Promise him, that our pursuits shall yield him a large stock of entertainment, with a full share of the marvellous. Assure him that he shall hear

——————Of antres vast, and deserts idle,
Rough quarries, rocks, and hills, whose heads touch heaven.
Shakspeare.

Tell him, I hope his faith will be comprehensive enough to enable him to receive, with full credit, the accounts delivered by Baptista Fulgosus, Ludovicus Moscardus, and Theodorus Moretus, that a whole ship, with its anchors, broken masts, and forty mariners, with their merchandize, were found, in the year 1460, in a mine fifty fathom deep, in the neighbourhood of Berne in Switzerland. Relate to him, that Valchius, in his Commentary on the *Klein Baur*, tells us of a truly curious fossil man, found at Maria Kirch, near Strasburgh, by a miner, who, breaking open the hollow of a rock, was astonished at beholding the figure of an armed man, standing upright, now composed of a mass of silver, of five hundred pounds weight. If his interest and astonishment be not hereby sufficiently excited, tell him, we have more tales of wonder in store; of flocks of cattle, of large companies of men, and of even whole cities, with their inhabitants, being converted to stone. I could supply him, from a comparatively modern author, with an account of a troop of Spanish horsemen, who thus underwent the process of petrifaction; and with a very seriously attested relation of a petrified child, which was shewn at Paris, and which was, occasionally, used by its possessor as a whet-stone!'

A slight sketch of the earth's surface and stratification, and an accidental notice of some fossil wood, form the subject of the fifth and sixth letters. The seventh commences with a formal division of vegetable fossils into Trees, Plants, Roots, Stalks, Leaves, Fruits, and Seed-vessels. This distinction, it is obvious, is neither accurate nor necessary. Indeed, the author treats it with no great respect, by far the greater portion of the volume being occupied with the first part of the division, and the last appearing very problematical even to himself.

In the copious list of places in which subterraneous trees have been pointed out by antient and modern writers, Hatfield-Chace, and Sutton in Lincolnshire, are particularly distinguished, in consequence of the striking observations of M. de la Pryme and Dr. Corrêa de Serra, which are inserted in the Philosophical Transactions. It is to be wished, however, that the author had excluded from his antediluvian relics the contents of peat-bogs and morasses, or had proved their pretensions to such very high antiquity.

Letters 8th, 9th, and 10th, which treat of the principles of vegetable economy, of the resolution of plants into mould, and of some well-known facts relative to the history of peat,

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appear to us somewhat irrelevant to the professed object of Mr. Parkinson's inquiries.

We are next presented with various instances of fossil wood; among which the *surturbrand* of Iceland and the *Bovey coal* are especially distinguished. The various modifications of bitumen are then rather tediously discussed, under the popular designations of *Naphtha*, *Petroleum*, *Amber*, &c. In this part of the work, Mr. P. has quoted a curious account of the Tar Lake of Trinidad, as given by Mr. Anderson in a former volume of the Philosophical Transactions. See M. Rev. Vol. lxxxi. p. 524.

The letters on coal are valuable, but chiefly on account of the variety of facts which they contain; and these facts are mostly borrowed from Williams's Mineral Kingdom. The Whitehaven collieries, though affording room for very interesting observations, are unaccountably dispatched in a few sentences.—The mass of preliminary and extraneous matters, through which we have hitherto waded, is accumulated with little discrimination from a great variety of sources; and the information thus afforded would certainly have appeared to greater advantage, had it been more methodically reduced, and submitted to the process of judicious condensation.

In the 18th letter, the author begins to unfold his wonder-working hypothesis of *bituminous fermentation*—'*A fermentation peculiar to vegetable matter placed in such situations, as not only exclude the external air, and secure the presence of moisture, but prevent the escape of the more volatile principles; and which terminates in the formation of those substances termed bitumens.*'—With all due attention and impartiality, we have endeavoured to follow the mazy explanation of a doctrine which forms a leading feature in Mr. Parkinson's subsequent pages, but which, like the conjectural foundations of other systems, remains to be proved. As he attributes the formation of peat to his favourite process, he deems it incumbent on him to review and to confute the sentiments of preceding writers on this subject; and thus we are still led away from the consideration of antediluvian remains, and decoyed into quagmires by the *ignis fatuus* of bituminous fermentation. When canvassing the opinions of others, the author very properly objects to the idea of peat having existed in its present state from the creation of the world; since it is composed of substances which have evidently borne another form, and as the progress of its conversion may even be traced at the present day. The same arguments, however, are sufficient to convince us that peat is not necessarily of antediluvian origin, that the morasses peculiar to some northern countries are not the result of the deluge, and that a large

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large portion of the present volume has little or no reference to its ostensible title.

On the puzzling subject of the formation of amber, we are presented with most of the common opinions. The author's own ideas agree with those of the ingenious Dalechamp in his Annotations on Pliny; namely, that it is a bituminous substance, which has issued, in a fluid state, from clefts of the earth, in the neighbourhood of bituminous strata; and which has occasionally enveloped parts of insects, and other foreign bodies:

'If amber were gum or resin which has undergone the change of bituminization, the matters which it contains should certainly also have suffered a similar change In the few pieces in my own possession, as well as in all others which I have seen, except in one instance, which I shall presently notice, the insects appear not to have suffered the least change, even in their colours, which surely must have taken place, had they been macerating in the softened mass which contains them, during the change it has undergone; although by the difference of their nature they might be entirely exempt from the other effects of the bituminizating process.

'In one specimen, which I possess, containing vegetable matters, the little fragments of moss, and the other particles which are so small as not to furnish the means of judging to what plants, or even to what parts of plants, they belong, do not appear to have suffered the least change, nor to have made the least approach to transparency, excepting one or two pieces, in which it may be readily accounted for, by their extreme thinness and natural proneness to pellucidness, they appearing, when examined by the aid of a lens, very much to resemble in their structure a piece of straw. Not having suffered that change, which this hypothesis supposes the containing mass to have undergone, it seems fair to conclude, that these matters must have been introduced after this particular process had been accomplished in the amber itself, and are therefore preserved, like the insects, in the same state as when first entombed.

'Let us not refuse instruction whenever it is offered to us, and especially when, by duly attending to it, we may escape the suspended lash, necessarily held in readiness to check the prompt and presumptive theorist. The specimen of amber to which I have alluded, besides substances decidedly vegetable, and others too equivocal to determine whether they are parts of vegetables or of insects, contains two flies. One of these appears to be in as perfect a state of preservation as when living; the legs being collected nearly in a point, and stretched to their length, as though the flowing bitumen had secured the imprisonment of the little captive, during its active exertions to raise himself from the treacherous surface. The other, on the contrary, appears to have lost its natural colours, and possesses very nearly the transparency, which is very considerable, of the amber itself; as if it had undergone a similar change with the substance which contains it. If it had been a leaf instead of a fly, what would have become of our proposed hypothesis?—But might it not have been only the thin and

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wasted remains of a dead fly, the transparency of which has been increased by its becoming filled by the bright and clear bitumen?

'Having hazarded the conjecture that amber has existed, as a bitumen in a fluid state, and that the foreign substances it contains were introduced in it whilst it was in that state, it may be expected that some instances should be adduced of its having been found in an intermediate state between that of fluidity and that in which it is supposed constantly to exist.

'But it must be considered that the characteristic physical properties of amber, such as yielding a peculiar odour, and becoming attractive by friction, depend on its indurated state, and must therefore be sought for in vain, in an inferior state of inspissation. To ascertain, with precision, therefore, from what species of liquid bitumen it is derived, may be impossible; since we are reduced, whilst seeking for the analogous fluid bitumen, to trace it by the aid only of such physical properties as colour, degree of transparency, &c. which are common to both states. By these marks, perhaps, if the substances had been examined with a view to that inquiry, some analogy might have been discovered between amber and those bituminous masses found by Stelluto, and those said to resemble mastich and frankincense, which are described by Dr. Woodward and Mons. Fontaine, and which were found even incorporated with fossil wood, with which substance, we have already seen, amber is found generally associated. Were such specimens again to be found, it would be, certainly, highly desirable to ascertain whether, by continued exposure to a slightly increased degree of temperature, or by long keeping, it would acquire the hardness and other properties of amber.

'A specimen of bitumen from Castleton, in Derbyshire, which I possess through the kindness of Mr. Mawes, shews that bitumen, in a soft state, may possess the colour as well as the transparency of amber. It exists in a piece of lime-stone, to which it adheres very closely. Its transparency is almost that of the clearest amber, and the colour, which is most generally diffused through it, is of a deepish yellow, just such as would be conceived from the term amber-yellow, being tinged also in different parts with a brownish red. Its degree of softness is such, that it yields to the slightest pressure, recovering itself, however, on the removal of the pressure, with such a degree of elasticity, as undoubtedly authorizes the placing it among the elastic bitumens.

'The elastic bitumens, as we learn by the observations of Mr. Hatchett, may, by being melted, be deprived of their elasticity, and thus might the specimen here alluded to be reduced to the more common state of bitumens; and probably, by a well managed inspissation, might be made to assume a solid form, without its transparency or colour being at all thereby impaired. In this state, it would undoubtedly become attractive by friction; which property, taken in conjunction with its colour and transparency, would necessarily render its resemblance to amber very close.

'By what has been here said, I do not however, by any means, intend to imply that such a substance would be actually amber; since, perhaps, the formation of amber may depend on peculiar circumstances

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stances attendant on its inspissation; and most particularly on some peculiar modification of the oxygen contained in the bitumen from which it may proceed.'

The views of several celebrated naturalists, concerning the origin of coal, are shortly considered in the twenty third letter. In the twenty-fourth, Mr. Parkinson thus proposes his own theory:

'The opinion, which the strictest examination of every circumstance seems best to warrant the adoption of, appears to be, that coal is a product of the vegetable matter, which has been buried at several distant periods, but chiefly in consequence of an universal deluge; and which, after having been reduced to a fluid state by the bituminous fermentation, has suffered a certain modification of that inflammability, which bitumens in general possess, by the oxygenizement of its carbon, and by an intimate and peculiar intermixture with various earthy and metallic salts.'

Notwithstanding the laboured and ingenious developement of this hypothesis, we are not satisfied that it is consistently stated in different passages; and much less that it accounts for some of the principal appearances which accompany coal strata, as that of their local affections, their depth and regularity, their occasional contiguity to masses of trap formation, &c. Coal is a substance which is by no means so generally diffused over the globe as it would have been, if its alleged rudiments, the antediluvian forests, had been as universally extended as the theory presupposes. We could offer other remarks in opposition to the reasoning which Mr. Parkinson adopts with so much earnestness: but the physical problem which it involves still strikes us as beyond the competency of the human faculties, and as by no means decidedly connected with the state of our planet, previously to an universal deluge, if any such ever occurred. Yet from such a calamity, the benevolent and pious mind of the author educes good; and he would even insinuate, what few theologians will be inclined to concede, that the formation of pit-coal was one of the purposes which Providence had in view in ordaining the flood. The sable race at Newcastle on the Tyne were not, perhaps, aware that their vocation was connected with such high and important destinies.

The twenty-seventh letter treats of incombustible coal, or the carbonic principle, as it occurs in a native state. This subject is curious and interesting: but it receives no additional illustration from the pen of Mr. Parkinson; who, with the volcanists, ascribes its properties to the expulsion of the bituminous principle by subterraneous fire. In confirmation of this opinion, instances are quoted to prove the spontaneous combustion of coal; yet we are not convinced that these conflagrations

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grations produce the substance known by the names *mineral coal*, *coal-blende*, *blind coal*, &c. In the cases which we have had an opportunity of examining, not a particle of this substance has been found; for either the bitumen was but partially expelled, or the progress of the flames was marked by a calcined argillaceous residuum.

On the subject of pyrites, we find some ingenious argumentation directed against Dr. Hutton and Professor Playfair; who boldly maintain that the aqueous formation of metallic sulphurets is a physical impossibility. The present author contends that the violet tarnish of polished silver, which M. Proust found to be a sulphuret of that metal, and the darkening of the common sympathetic inks by sulphurated hydrogen, are instances of the union of metal and sulphur in the moist way. As in the laboratory of the chemist, metals held in solution are precipitated by an addition of sulphurated hydrogen, and combined with the sulphur, similar effects may be allowed to take place in subterranean situations.

'The action of a double affinity is exerted. The dissolved and oxydated metal, as well as the sulphuretted hydrogen, suffers decomposition. The sulphuretted hydrogen being separated into its two constituent principles, hydrogen and sulphur, the former unites with the oxygen, which had oxydated the metal and had contributed to its solution, abstracts it from the metal, and with it forms water; whilst the latter principle, the sulphur, deserted by the hydrogen, combines with the metal, thus nearly freed of its oxygen, and reduced, and forms with it a sulphuret, which is precipitated.'—

'Hence it appears probable, at least, that the formation of the native sulphurets may take place, independent of the action of fire: and M. Proust, and our celebrated countryman, Mr. Davy, are of opinion, that the native sulphurets are actually formed, in consequence of a similar decomposition of different solutions of metals, by their combination with hydrosulphurets. It must, however, be remarked, that some of the metals are not thus precipitated by the addition of sulphuretted hydrogen alone; since when the metals are reduced to their *minimum* of oxygen, in consequence of its subtraction by the hydrogen, they retain the last portion of it with a considerable degree of power, and are thereby prevented from entering into union with sulphur. The addition, however, of an earth, an alkali, or the carbonaceous matter, so abundant in the earth, takes from the metal this portion of adhering oxygen, leaving it pure, and free to enter into combination with the sulphur. In justice to the supporters of the Vulcanian theory, it must be also remarked, that essentially different properties, both physical and chemical, distinguish the pyrites, or native sulphurets, from the artificial or factitious. Their crystalline forms, their peculiar splendour, and their iridiscent investiture, yield matter indeed for pertinacious argument, on both sides of the question. But, surely, the circumstance of these crystals being found often,

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often, fast imbedded in so combustible a body as bitumen, speaks strongly in favour of their aqueous origin. Jet is frequently found containing them, or being closely invested by them, and at the same time manifesting no marks of having been acted on by heat; which would surely have been the case, if their formation, which must have been at the time of their fixing themselves in, or attaching themselves to, this substance, had been effected from a substance, in a state of igneous fusion. Their splendour, and their itidiscent surface, appear also to be, at least, as easily accounted for by the agency of water, as by that of fire. Mrs. Fulhame has detailed some very pleasing, and ingenious, experiments, which bear very strong evidence in favour of this opinion of their aqueous origin. This lady impregnated pieces of silk with solutions of various metals, and exposed them, wetted with water, to the action of hydrogen, sulphuretted hydrogen, &c. in consequence of which, they became covered by films of reduced metal; which sometimes, like the native sulphurets, displayed a variety of most lively colours. Even those metals, which were not capable of being precipitated, by the addition of sulphuretted hydrogen to their solutions, in this manner obtained their metallic splendour.

'By these experiments, we are undoubtedly taught, that hydrogen, as well as sulphuretted hydrogen, is capable of reducing the metals, even in the ordinary temperature of the atmosphere: that water promotes these reductions in a very remarkable manner; and that these reductions of the metals are accompanied by a variety of colours, resembling those which frequently mark the surfaces of the splendid natural sulphurets, or pyrites.'

The next topic, on which our author thinks proper to dilate with considerable minuteness, is the natural process of petrifaction. To the doctrine of *substitution*, it is objected, 1st, that lines smaller than hairs, proceeding from the centre of a piece of wood to its circumference, cannot have their component parts removed, and their places exactly filled up by earthy particles, merely deposited by water, so as to preserve their continuity; and, 2dly, that, even on the supposition of this very nice and accurate exchange of the particles of matter, the preservation of the original *colour* of the wood remains to be explained. In reply to the Huttonian hypothesis, which attributes petrifaction to the injection of silex, fused by heat, it is remarked that we cannot well suppose such an injection to have occasioned the destruction of the ligneous texture in some cases, and to have preserved it in others.

'Professor Playfair states that, "on examination, the siliceous matter is often observed to have penetrated the wood very unequally, so that the vegetable structure remains in some places entire; and, in other places, is lost in an homogeneous mass of agate or jasper. Where this happens, it may be remarked, he says, that the line which separates these two parts is quite sharp and distinct; altogether different from what must have taken place, had the flinty matter been introduced into

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into the body of the wood, by any fluid in which it was dissolved; as it would then have pervaded the whole, if not uniformly, yet with a regular gradation."

'Mr. Playfair here undoubtedly speaks of specimens which he has either himself seen, or of those, the description of which, he conceives, warrants this account. My objections here must be necessarily feeble, being only of a negative kind. During the perpetual examination, for several years, of specimens of fossil wood, I can say, that I never yet saw one in which the line separating these two parts of the specimen was quite sharp and distinct, and different from what must have taken place, had the flinty matter been introduced into the body of the wood, by any fluid, in which it was dissolved. On the contrary, in numerous specimens now before me, in which the fibres of the fossil wood are in some parts distinct, and in others lost, I seek in vain for any line of distinction, as to the penetration of the wood with siliceous matter; but see in all, no difference whatever in this respect in that part where the structure is confused or where it is distinct; nor do I find the least reason to suppose, that the silex has not pervaded the whole, in the most uniform manner.

"In those specimens of fossil wood that are partly penetrated by agate, and partly not penetrated at all," the Professor says, "the same sharpness of termination may be remarked, and is an appearance highly characteristic of the fluidity produced by fusion." Here I have again to lament the never having had the opportunity of seeing a specimen similar to those which are here alluded to. I possess several specimens of agatine, opaline, and jasperine woods, the appearance of the external parts of which very nearly resemble that of unchanged wood; but examination soon shews that these parts have also been pervaded by the silex. That such speciments do not exist. It is not my intention to assert; it is quite sufficient to remark, that such specimens would only prove that the petrifying matter had only been applied to one particular part of the wood; a circumstance of which there certainly exists no reason to prohibit the occurrence, in the case of the application of an aqueous solution of petrifying matter.

'Mr. Kirwan, indeed, quotes an account, that the Emperor or Germany, being desirous to know the length of time necessary to complete a petrifaction, obtained leave from the Sultan to take up, and examine, one of the timbers that had supported Trajan's bridge over the Danube, some miles below Belgrade. It was found, it is said, to have been converted into an agate, to the depth only of half an inch; the inner parts being slightly petrified, and the central still wood. What authority is due to this account, I pretend not to determine; but must acknowledge, that no circumstance, to which I have arrived at the knowledge of, would have induced me to have expected such an event. If the fact be so, it not only is an additional answer to the reasonings of Mr. Playfair, but proves, as Mr. Kirwan observes, that siliceous particles are soluble in water, are taken up by wood, and that petrifaction is carried on, under appropriate circumstances, in modern times.'

According to the present writer, most petrified wood has previously existed in a bituminized state.

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'The form and structure of the wood, with even some of its smaller fibres, are curiously preserved; water pervades every part of it; and its durability is such, as to ensure its preservation until that event happens, on which its consolidation appears to depend—the saturation of the water, with which it is in every part imbued, with earthy particles, chiefly in a state of solution. These consolidating, by the formation of extremely minute crystallizations, through the whole softened mass of bituminized wood, *gives* it an aluminous, a calcareous, or a siliceous substance, without disturbing the existing arrangement of its fibres. Thus appear to be formed all those fossils, which really deserve the name of petrifactions; and thus, perhaps, can, alone, be explained that curious phænomenon—the exact preservation of even the minute fibres of the wood; still retaining their continuity, and their original characteristic disposition, whilst their substance has undergone a conversion into stone.'

This view of the subject is at least ingenious, and certainly not less plausible than others which have been proposed. In its support, the author is obliged to contend for the aqueous origin of siliceous pebbles. Chemists have, no doubt, shewn that silica may be held in solution by water: but this solution must be previously effected by some other agent.—Having discussed his general principles of petrifaction, Mr. Parkinson proceeds to describe the different varieties of *silicized* wood, which he designates according to their predominant impregnations, as *calcedonic*, *agatine*, *jasperized*, &c. That the ligneous structure is more or less manifest in all fossil wood will scarcely be disputed: but we are not yet so lost in bituminous fermentation, as to affirm that 'most jaspers owe something in their composition to *vegetable* matter, changed by those processes to which it was necessarily subjected after the universal deluge.'—Different curious specimens of fossil opaline wood are well described, and neatly displayed in the coloured plates. The resinous lustre of some of the species suggests their affinity with pitch-stone, particularly with the ligniform kinds: but that this lustre is owing to bitumen, impregnated with silica, will admit of considerable doubt. It is hinted, however, that traces of bitumen may be detected in the semi-opal, and in the opal itself, whether in its ordinary or hydrophanous state; and that similar indications may, perhaps, be discovered in flint and horn-stone.

The history of the calcareous petrifications is not attended with the same difficulty as that of the siliceous; the deposition of carbonate of lime from various springs and rivers being obvious to daily notice. In a work, therefore, consecrated to the organic remains of an antediluvian world, we conceive it a superfluous task to enumerate the most celebrated instances

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of such calcareous depositions. We cannot, however, omit mentioning an ingenious application of this natural process:

'Dr. Leonard Vegni has established, at the baths of St. Philip, in Tuscany, a manufactory, to precipitate this fine *tufa* on medals and bas reliefs, and to get by that means the finest impressions. He causes this hot incrustating water to fall, from on high, into a large vessel, and to break upon a wooden cross; whereby it is separated into a fine spray, and directed against the sides of the vessel, on which, all around, the medals, or bas reliefs, or their mouldings or forms, are hanging. The falling or breaking of the water imparts a greater impulsion to its drops, and to its *turfo* or *tartaro*; which, without this manipulation, would be but farinaceous, friable, and spongy. Mr. Ferber, from whose work the above account of this process is extracted, says, that Dr Vegni has succeeded already in casting busts of this *tufa*, and he soon hopes to cast statues of natural size. Since the publication of the above account, I learn that Dr. Vegni has applied the waters at Tivoli to the same ingenious purposes.'

The examples of metallized wood, which are here adduced, are chiefly confined to impregnations of iron and copper, especially to bog iron ore, and the beautiful Siberian Malachites.

With respect to the varieties of petrified wood, we find this judicious remark:

'Imagination, in many instances, has so much assisted conjecture, respecting the kind of tree from which the fossil wood has originated, that opinions respecting this circumstance should be received with caution; since very frequently the supposed resemblance is founded on colour, and on direction of fibres, which may have undergone considerable changes, and have even owed those particular appearances, to the influence of circumstances dependent on a subterranean situation. Whilst, in some, their vague and indistinct marks are insufficient to allow of any opinion being adopted respecting their primitive form; in others, appearances offer themselves dissimilar to those of any known recent tree.'

Mr. Parkinson appears to have examined the starry stone of Chemnitz with very particular attention, and to have proved that its singular appearance is not ascribable to the natural pores of the wood, to any coralline body, nor to the stalks of pentacrinites. With M. Walch, he is inclined to believe that it exhibits the remains of some unknown zoophyte.

The fossil vegetable impressions, which so much abound in schistus, sand-stone, calcareous strata, and argillaceous nodules, are generally acknowleged to be of a formation posterior to the deluge; and the difficulty of determining even the genera to which they belong is well known to the most skilful botanists. Many of them seem to pertain to the families of reeds,

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reeds, ferns, and carti, and to have been the produce of a warm climate. The President of the Linnéan Society has, with much hesitation, pronounced on a few; and several of the older botanists have advanced very different opinions concerning the prototypes of the same impressions. The circumstance of the same side of a leaf appearing on two halves of an argillaceous nodule is here thus ingeniously explained:

'The iron stone nodule, on being split, affords the most satisfactory evidence as to the nature of the change which the vegetable matter undergoes in these cases, since here, bitumen will uniformly be found to have taken the place, which vegetable matter had originally possessed. Reverting, therefore, only to the position, that vegetable matter, secluded from the air, in a moist situation, will pass through a certain fermentative process, by which it will be converted to bitumen; the key to this enigmatic phænomenon is at once found. The leaf, involved in the tenacious argillaceous matter necessarily forms a mould bearing its exact form; and after a certain period, during which the surrounding mass acquires a greater degree of hardness, and a nodular form, the vegetable matter changes into bitumen, which fills the mould, and assumes exactly the same form which the leaf originally bore. If therefore, the nodule be now split, one of these two circumstances will occur—either the bitumen will, by the breaking of the nodule, be separated and lost, leaving the impressions on both sides of the leaf perfect: or it will separate from one side only, and adhere to the other; when the side from which it has separated will yield the impression of the leaf, and the bituminous matter itself, possessing the place of the leaf, will present a surface analogous to that of the leaf from which the impression was originally derived. The separated flake of bitumen, mentioned in the first case, has in some instances been preserved; the description which has been given of it, it being said to resemble a piece of leather or parchment, agreeing much better with its possessing a bituminous nature, than its being a mere dried leaf.'

Without dwelling on the concluding and general remarks, which involve much theological conjecture, we shall close this cursory report of the first part of Mr. Parkinson's labours, by expressing our sincere wishes that, in the prosecution of his arduous design, he may manifest the same diligence in collecting facts, and more taste and judgment in digesting them; and that, while he bestows on his materials similar liberal embellishments of paper, typography, and engraving, he may mould them into a more seemly mass, and spare his readers many pages of tedious and gratuitous discussion.

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ART. II. *The Life of George Washington, Commander in Chief of the American Forces*, &c. &c. By John Marshall, Chief Justice of the United States. Vol. II. 4to. 1l. 11s. 6d. Boards. R. Phillips. 1804.

IN our observations on the first part of this publication *, we animadverted on the discordance between the title and the tenor of the performance; and we are sorry to be obliged to state that the present volume is liable to the same censure. On perusing the title-page, the reader is led to expect an ample detail of the particulars of General Washington's whole life, and to anticipate the disclosure of incidents and anecdotes which had never before transpired beyond the circle of private acquaintance: but, when he sits down to the work itself, he finds it to be rather a North American history than a biographical memoir, and less detailed and connected than those of which the public is already in possession. He will, however, here meet with some statements which manifest ability and discrimination; as well as some political and moral remarks which shew that the writer is rather sparing of research than deficient in talents, and the requisite qualifications.

The first page of this volume commences in the following terms:

'George Washington, the third son of Augustine Washington, was born in Virginia, at Bridges-Creek in the county of Westmorland, on the 22d of February, 1732. He was the great grandson of John Washington, a gentleman of very respectable family in the north of England, who had emigrated about the year 1657, and settled on the place where young Mr. Washington was born.

'Very early in life the cast of his genius disclosed itself. The war in which his country was then engaged against France and Spain, first kindled those latent sparks which afterwards blazed with equal splendour and advantage; and at the age of fifteen he urged so pressingly to be permited to enter into the British navy, that the place of midshipman was obtained for him. The interference of a timid and affectionate mother suspended for a time the commencement of his military course.

'He lost his father at the age of ten years, and received what was denominated an English education; a term which excludes the acquisition of other languages than our own. As his patrimonial estate was by no means considerable, his youth was employed in useful industry: and in the practice of his profession as a surveyor, he had an opportunity of acquiring that information respecting vacant lands, and of forming those opinions concerning their future value, which afterwards greatly contributed to the increase of his private fortune.

'It is strong evidence of the opinion entertained of his capacity, that when not more than nineteen years of age, and at a time when

* See Rev. vol. xliv. N. S. p. 337.

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the militia were to be trained for actual service, he was appointed one of the adjutants-general of Virginia, with the rank of major. The duties annexed to this office were performed by him for a very short time. The plan formed by France for connecting her extensive dominions in America, by uniting Canada with Louisiana, now began to develope itself. Possession was taken of a tract of country then deemed to be within the province of Virginia, and a line of posts was commenced from the Lakes to the Ohio. The attention of Mr. Dinwiddie, the lieutenant-governor of that province, was attracted by these supposed encroachments; and he deemed it his duty to demand, in the name of the king his master, that they should desist from the prosecution of designs which violated, as he thought, the treaties between the two crowns. A proper person was to be selected for the performance of this duty, which, at that time, was very properly believed to be a very arduous one. A great part of the country, through which the envoy was to pass was almost entirely unexplored, and inhabited only by Indians, many of whom were hostile to the English, and others of doubtful attachment. While the dangers and fatigues of the journey deterred those from undertaking it who did not extend their views to the future scenes to be exhibited in that country, or who did not wish to be actors in them, they seem to have furnished motives to Mr. Washington for desiring to be employed in this hazardous service, and he engaged in it with the utmost alacrity.'

Thus does the writer hurry the illustrious subject of his labours at once into public life, without any notice of the periods of childhood and youth; totally regardless of the demands of that curiosity which is natural in cultivated society, and which requires to be informed of incidents, even apparently trifling, that are connected with a great character. The ability displayed by our youthful hero in the above mentioned expedition, his wise conduct towards the friendly Indians, his address and management in defeating the arts practised by the French to seduce them, his observations on the fort built by the Ohio Company, his selection of the very spot for the erection of one on which the French afterward constructed that of du Quesne, and the firmness displayed by him when surrounded by obstacles and dangers, broadly intimate his fitness for those high destinies which he was subsequently called to fulfil.

The answer of the French commander being unfavourable, the Assembly of Virginia collected a force of 300 men, in which Mr. Washington was second in command under one Frye: who dying shortly afterward, Washington filled the first place. On receiving his appointment,

'Extremely solicitous to be engaged as early as possible in active service, and to be usefully employed, he obtained permission, about the beginning of April, to march with two companies, in advance of the other troops, to the Great Meadows. By this measure he ex-

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pected to protect the country, to make himself more perfectly acquainted with it, as well as with the situations and designs of the enemy; and to preserve the friendship of the savages. Immediately after his arrival at that place, he was visited by some friendly Indians, who informed him that the French had dispossessed a party of workmen employed by the Ohio Company to erect a fort on the south-eastern branch of the Ohio, and were themselves then engaged in completing a fortification at the confluence of the Aleghany and Monongahela rivers; and that a detachment from that place was then on its march towards the Great Meadows. Open hostilities had not yet commenced, but the country was considered as invaded; and several circumstances were related contributing to the opinion that this party was approaching with hostile views. Among others it was stated that they had left the path some distance, and had encamped for the night in a bottom, in a secret retired situation, as if to secure concealment. The Indians offering themselves as guides, Colonel Washington set out in a dark rainy night, in the course of which he surrounded and completely surprised the French encampment, which was but a few miles west of the Great Meadows. About day-break his troops fired, and rushed upon the French, who immediately surrendered; one man only escaped; and M. Jumonville, the commanding officer of the party, was the only person killed.'

It was on this day that our hero first fleshed his sword, and that the first blood was shed in the glorious war of 1756. Though our young commander was soon afterward obliged to retreat before a supetior force, and to shut himself up in *Fort Necessity*, which was not able long to hold out against its numerous assailants, he displayed on every occasion a gallantry and a cool courage which very highly raised his reputation.

'Great credit was given to Colonel Washington by his countrymen for the courage displayed on this occasion; and the Legislature were so satisfied with the conduct of the party, as to vote their thanks to him and the officers under his command. They also gave three hundred pistoles, to be distributed among the soldiers engaged in the action, as a reward for their bravery.

'To the vote of thanks, the officers made the following reply:—

"We, the officers of the Virginia regiment, are highly sensible of the particular mark of distinction with which you have honoured us, in returning your thanks for our behaviour in the late action; and cannot help testifying our grateful acknowledgements for your "*high sense*" of what we shall always esteem a duty to our country and the best of kings.

"Favoured with your regard, we shall zealously endeavour to deserve your applause, and by our future actions strive to convince the worshipful House of Burgesses, how much we esteem their approbation; and, as it ought to be, regard it as the voice of our country.

"Signed, for the whole corps,

"GEORGE WASHINGTON."

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The above answer of the officers shews what a loyal spirit existed at this time in the colonies; and on other occasions, as well as on this, we find Washington making ardent professions of loyalty,—professions which were in thorough unison with his conduct. Regulations most unjust and impolitic, originating in the spirit that afterward lost us the colonies, deprived the British service of this promising young officer; for we learn that, in the course of the winter,

'Orders were received for settling the rank of the officers of His Majesty's forces, when joined or serving with the provincial forces in North America; which directed, that all officers commissioned by the King, or by his General commanding in chief in North America, should take rank of all officers commissioned by the Governors of the respective provinces. And further, that the general and field-officers of the provincial troops should have no rank when serving with the general and field-officers commissioned by the Crown: but that all captains and other inferior officers of the royal troops should take rank over provincial officers of the same degree having senior commissions.

'Though his original attachment to a military life had been rather increased by the applauses bestowed on his first essay in arms, Colonel Washington possessed too entirely the proud and punctilious feelings of a soldier to submit to a degradation so humiliating as this. Professing his unabated inclination to continue in the service, he retired indignantly from it, and answered the various letters which he received, pressing him still to hold his commission, with assurances that he should serve with pleasure, when he should be enabled to do so without dishonour.

'His eldest brother, Mr. Lawrence Washington, who had been engaged in the expedition against Carthagena, had lately died, and left him a considerable estate on the Potomack, which, in compliment to the admiral who commanded the fleet engaged in that enterprise, by whom he had been particularly noticed, he had called *Mount Vernon*.

'To this delightful spot Colonel Washington now withdrew, resolving to devote all his future attention to the avocations of private life.'

General Braddock, apprized of the merits of Mr. Washington, invited him in the handsomest manner to volunteer in his army, and to accept of the place of his aid de camp; with which offer he closed. Nothing is better known in our history than the fate of that General's unfortunate expedition, and the great credit gained by Washington in the course of it. His account of the affair of Monongahela, which contains the most severe reflections on the *regular*, while it is highly flattering to the *provincial* troops, is remarkable for that perspicuity and method which distinguish all his communications.

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So high was the opinion entertained of Colonel Washington in Virginia, that, on its being resolved to raise a regiment in that province, he was appointed to the command of it, complimented with the nomination of his own field officers, and designated in his commission as the commander in chief of all the troops raised and to be raised in the colony of Virginia. This situation only served to put to the severest test his magnanimity, patience, and patriotism. The dilatoriness, indecision, and parsimony of the governor and assembly occasioned successive ravages in the western counties of the province, which would have been all prevented had the advice of the Colonel been followed: but it was disregarded, and the back settlers became the victims of the cruelty and pillage of the French and Indians. His repeated admonitions, (addressed first to the assembly and to Dinwiddie the Lieutenant-Governor, and afterward to Loudoun who succeeded the latter in the government,) to raise a force sufficient for taking Fort du Quesne, were also totally slighted. When in 1757 that measure was adopted, and which only failed in 1755 because the hints of Washington were not followed, it was his fate again to find his representations set aside, and a plan pursued which must have miscarried. Nothing, he says in a letter written at that time, can save the colony from extreme danger, and the troops from ruin, but a miracle: happily, the influence of external events worked that miracle; the fleet took the provisions which were destined for the French fort; the pressure on Canada prevented the arrival of reinforcements; and that strong place, which the British had no means of taking, was abandoned by the enemy. Loudoun and Forbes appear to have been men of ordinary souls. Either jealous of the merit of Washington, or wanting talents to discern it, they persevered in the blundering system of Dinwiddie; who not only had neglected the counsels of the commander, but had treated him in a harsh and haughty manner: even heaping insults on the man who was destined to be one of the first characters that occur in human annals. Unfortunately for them, the names of those persons who undervalued his salutary admonitions through weakness, jealously, or feelings still more base, live in history to excite the contempt and indignation of mankind to the latest times.—Speaking with becoming warmth of the sordid beings who adopted the disastrous measures which he ceased not to oppose in every way that became him, he says in one of his letters:

'See how our time has been mis-spent; behold how the golden opportunity is lost, perhaps never moc to be regained! How is it to be

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be accounted for? Can General Forbes have orders for this? Impossible. Will, then, our injured country pass by such abuses? I hope, not. Rather let a full representation of the matter go to His Majesty; let him know how grossly his glory and interests, and the public money, have been prostituted.'

It must be owned that this command, in which he was thwarted in every point, and in which he was seen labouring under every defect of means, and ordered to work impossibilities, served as an admirable school to qualify him for that higher sphere in which he was called to move, when the states were driven to revolt. We may form some idea of his situation, from a passage in one of his letters written at the time:

'Whence it arises, or why, I am truly ignorant, but my strongest representations of matters relative to the peace of the frontiers are disregarded as idle and frivolous; my propositions and measures as partial and selfish; and all my sincerest endeavours for the service of my country perverted to the worst purposes. My orders are dark, doubtful, and uncertain. To day approved, to-morrow condemned; left to act and proceed at hazard; accountable for the consequences, and blamed without the benefit of defence. If you can think my situation capable of exciting the smallest degree of envy, or of affording the least satisfaction, the truth is yet hid from you, and you entertain notions very different from the reality of the case. However, I am determined to bear up under all these embarrassments some time longer, in the hope of better regulations under Lord Loudoun, to whom I look for the future fate of Virginia.'

We cannot help observing that, at this period, amid all the great and solid qualities which shine in Mr. Washington's conduct, we discover something of the young man in his proceedings; he relied too much on the justice of his cause, he endeavoured to advance too directly towards his object, and he did not reckon sufficiently on the infirmities of men. He did not seem to be aware that, in order to render talents useful and plans successful, recourse must often be had to arts at which excellent intentions very naturally spurn. We feel, however, little inclination to pursue this Machiavelian view of human affairs, which experience unfortunately sanctions, and which this part of the present history too forcibly suggests.

The subsequent extracts from two of Washington's letters to the Lieutenant-Governor will give an idea of the treatment which he received from that weak, obstinate, and rude man:

"I must beg leave, before I conclude, to observe in justification of my own conduct, that it is with pleasure I receive reproof when reproof is due, because no person can be readier to accuse me than I am to acknowledge an error when I have committed it; nor more desirous of atoning for a crime when I am sensible of being guilty of one. But, on the other hand, it is with concern I remark, that my best en-

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deavours lose their reward, and that my conduct, although I have uniformly studied to make it as unexceptionable as I could, does not appear to you in a favourable point of light. Otherwise, your Honour would not have accused me of *loose* behaviour, and *remissness* of duty, in matters where, I think, I have rather exceeded than fallen short of it." —

"That I have foibles, and perhaps many of them, I shall not deny; I should esteem myself, as the world also would, vain and empty, were I to arrogate perfection.

"Knowledge in military matters is to be acquired by practice and experience only: and if I have erred, great allowance should be made for my errors for want of them, unless those errors should appear to be wilful; and then I conceive it will be more generous to charge me with my faults, and let me stand or fall according to evidence, than to stigmatize me behind my back.

"It is uncertain in what light my services may have appeared to your Honour; but this I know, and it is the highest consolation I am capable of feeling, that no man that ever was employed in a public capacity has endeavoured to discharge the trust reposed in him with greater honesty and more zeal for the country's interest, than I have done: and if there is any person living who can say with justice that I have offered any intentional wrong to the public, I will cheerfully submit to the most ignominious punishment that an injured people ought to inflict. On the other hand, it is hard to have my character arraigned, and my actions condemned, without a hearing.

"I must therefore again beg, in *more plain* and in *very earnest* terms, to know if ——— has taken the liberty of representing my conduct to your Honour with such ungentlemanly freedom as the letter implies? Your condescension herein will be acknowledged a singular favour."

Washington's comprehension of mind, his sound views, his deep penetration, his counsels and predictions, which the event ever sanctioned, and which may be collected from his communications with the Governor and Assembly of Virginia, bespoke him, even at that period, to be a man who would act a great part on the theatre of the world, if opportunity should ever offer. A peculiarly high tribute from his officers furnishes a remarkable testimony to the transcendancy of his native powers, which the simplicity of his manners and his unassuming conduct concealed from superficial observers.

As Col. W. afterward resigned his command, and acted no farther in the war then existing, we are carried on all at once to the peace of 1763, and to the disputes between the mother-country and the colonies, which had so fatal an issue.

The following is a very just and satisfactory view of the notions prevalent in America with respect to the dependence of the colonies on Great Britain:

'The degree of authority which might rightfully be exercised by the mother-country over her colonies had never been accurately defined.

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fered. In Britain it had always been asserted, that, Parliament possessed the power of binding them in all cases whatsoever. In America, at different times, and in different colonies, different opinions had been entertained on this subject.

'In New England, originally settled by republicans, and, during the depression of the regal government, the favourite of the English nation, habits of independence had nourished the theory, that the colonial assemblies possessed all the powers of legislation not surrendered by compact: that the Americans were subjects of the British crown, but not of the nation; and were bound by no laws to which their representatives had not assented. From this high ground they had been compelled reluctantly to recede. The judges, being generally appointed by the governors, with the advice of council, had determined that the colonies were bound by acts of parliament which concerned them, and which were expressly extended to them; and we have seen the general court of Massachussetts, on a late occasion, explicity recognising the same principle. This had perhaps become the opinion of many of the best informed men in the province; but the doctrine seems still to have been extensively maintained, that acts of parliament possessed only an external obligation; that they could regulate commerce, but not the interior affairs of the colonies.

'In the year 1692, immediately after the receipt of their new charter granted by William and Mary, the legislature of Massachussetts had passed an act denying most explicitly the right of any authority, other than that of the General Court, to impose on the colony any tax whatever; and also asserting those principles of national liberty which are found in Magna Charta. Not long afterwards the legislature of New York, probably with a view only to the authority claimed by the Governor, and not to that of the mother-country, passed an act similar to that of Massachussetts, in which its own supremacy, not only in matters of taxation, but of general legislation, is expressly asserted. Both these acts, however, were disapproved in England, and the Parliament asserted its authority by a law passed in 1696, declaring "that all laws, by-laws, usages, and customs, which shall be in practice in any of the plantations, repugnant to any law made, or to be made, in this kingdom relative to the said plantations, shall be void and of none effect." And three years afterwards an act was passed for the trial of pirates in America, in which is to be found the following very extraordinary clause: "Be it further declared, that if any of the governors, or any person or persons in authority there shall refuse to yield obedience to this act, such refusal is hereby declared to be a forfeiture of all and every the charters granted for the government and propriety of such plantation."

'The English statute-book furnishes many instances in which the legislative power of Parliament over the colonies was exercised so as to make regulations completely internal; and in no instance that is recollected was their authority openly controverted.

'In the middle and southern provinces no question respecting the supremacy of Parliament, in matters of general legislation, ever existed. The authority of such of their acts of internal regulation as were made for America, as well as of those for the regulation of commerce, even

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by the imposition of duties, provided those duties were imposed for the purposes of regulation, had been at all times admitted. But even these colonies, however they might acknowledge the supremacy of Parliament in other respects, denied the right of that body to tax them internally.'—

'A scheme for taxing the colonies by authority of Parliament had been formed so early as the year 1739, and recommended to Government by a club of American merchants, at the head of whom was Sir William Keith, Govenor of Pennsylvania. It was proposed to raise a body of regulars, to be stationed along the western frontier of the British settlements, for the protection of the Indian traders, the expence of which establishmemt was to be paid with monies arising from a duty on stamped paper and parchment in all the colonies, to be imposed by Parliament. This plan, however, was not countenanced by the then Minister; and it seems never to have been seriously taken up by the Government until the year 1754, when a war, in which every part of the empire was deeply concerned, was about to commence. Some of the colonies themselves appear then to have wished that a mode could be adopted which should combine their exertions, and equitably apportion their expences in the common cause. The attention of the Minister was then turned to a plan of taxation by authority of Parliament; and it will be recollected that a system was devised and recommended by him, as a substitute for the articles of union digested and agreed on by the Convention at Albany. The temper and opinions of the colonists on this subject, which means were used to ascertain; the impolicy of irritating them at a crisis which required all the exertions they were capable of making; furnished motives sufficient to induce a suspension, for the present, of a measure so delicate and dangerous: but it seems not to have been totally abandoned. Of the right of Parliament, as the supreme authority of the nation, to tax as well as to govern the colonies, those who guided the councils of Britain seem not to have entertained a doubt; and the language of men in power, on more than one occasion through the war, indicated a disposition to put this right in practice, when the termination of hostilities should render it less dangerous to do so. The conduct of some of the colonies, especially those in which a proprietary government was established, in failing to furnish in time the aids required of them, contributed to foster this disposition. This total opposition of opinion, on a subject the most interesting to the human heart, was now about to produce a system of measures which tore asunder all the bonds of relationship and affection which had for ages subsisted, and planted almost inextinguishable hatred in bosoms where the warmest friendship had so long been cultivated.'

Burdensome duties, and inconvenient restrictions on trade, originating in a spirit of avarice and domination, harshly enforced in newly created courts, generated a temper in the Americans, which readily disposed them to resist all encroachments, and more particularly one of the magnitude of that which was now attempted by the short-sighted cabinet of the mother-country. The deep and solemn tone of conviction apparent in all the petitions and addresses

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dresses of the states, as is here observed, 'ought to have produced a certainty that the principles assumed in them had made a strong impression, and would not lightly be abandoned: it ought to have been foreseen that, with such a people, so determined, the conflict must be stern and hazardous; and, even if ultimate success might be counted on, it was well worth the estimate, whether the object would compensate the means used in obtaining it.'

The success of the struggle appears to have been owing to the commander in chief alone; and it was by his less shewy qualities that it was ensured. He was more indebted to his patience, his firmness, and his perseverance, than to his military talents: the skilful commanders, and the tried and disciplined troops of Great Britain, were his least formidable opponents; the main difficulties with which he had to encounter arose from the mistaken notions, and fatal errors, of the authorities under which he acted, and from radical faults in the constitution of the army which he commanded:—difficulties by which most other men would have been overwhelmed. 'The Americans,' it is stated, 'were greatly elated by the intrepidity their raw troops had displayed, and the execution which had been done by them at Bunker's Hill. Their opinion of the superiority of veterans over men untrained to the duties of a soldier, sustained no inconsiderable diminution; and they fondly cherished the belief, that courage and dexterity in the use of fire-arms would bestow advantages amply compensating the want of discipline.'

In a letter to Congress, Washington writes:

"It is not," says he, "in the pages of history to furnish a case like ours. To maintain a post within musket shot of the enemy for six months together without ammunition, and at the same time to disband one army, and recruit another, within that distance of twenty odd British regiments, is more than, probably, ever was attempted. But if we succeed as well in the latter as we have hitherto done in the former, I shall think it the most fortunate event of my whole life."

On another occasion, addressing the same body, he observes,

"True it is, and I cannot help acknowledging, that, I have many disagreeable sensations on account of my situation; for to have the eyes of the whole Continent fixed on me, with anxious expectation of some great event, and to be restrained in every military operation for want of the necessary means to carry it on, is not very pleasing; especially as the means used to conceal my weakness from the enemy, conceals it also from our friends, and adds to their wonder."

The author of these pages thus accounts for the failure of the attempt against Quebec;—the plan and execution of which would

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would have done credit to Generals of the highest name, and of the greatest experience:

'In war, the success of the most judicious plans often depends on accidents not to be foreseen or controuled. Seldom has the truth of this position been more clearly demonstrated, than in the issue of the expedition conducted by Colonel Arnold. The situation of the enemy conformed exactly to the expectations of the commander in chief. Not suspecting that so bold and difficult an enterprize could possibly be meditated, Quebec had been left entirely defenceless, and all the strength of the province had been collected towards the lakes. Could Arnold have reached that place but a few days sooner; could he even have crossed the river on his first arrival at Point Levi, before the town was entered by M'Lean; had Colonel Enos been able to follow the main body with his division of the detachment; or had the first moments after passing the St. Lawrence been seized; every probability favours the opinion, that this hardy, and well-judged expedition, would have been crowned with the most brilliant success. Had Arnold even been careful to relieve the inhabitants of the town from all fears respecting their property, there is much reason to believe, they would have refused to defend it. But although this bold enterprize was planned with judgment, and executed with vigour; although the means employed were adequate to the object; yet the concurrence of several minute and unfavourable incidents entirely defeated it, and deprived it of that *eclat* to which it was justly entitled.'

The account here given of the progress of the American mind, from attempts to redress grievances to the attainment of absolute independence, is detailed in a manner that is creditable to the ability of the writer.

Animadverting on the confusion and panic which affected the troops on evacuating New York, Mr. Marshall observes:

'The apprehensions excited, by the defeat on Long Island, had not yet subsided, nor had the American troops recovered their confidence either in themselves or their commanders. Their situation appeared to themselves to be perilous, and they had not yet acquired that temper which teaches the veteran to do his duty wherever he may be placed; to assure himself that others will do their duty likewise; and to rely that those, who take into view the situation of the whole, will not expose him to useless hazards, or neglect those precautions, which the safety and advantage of the whole may require.

'Unfortunately, causes, in addition to those so often stated, existed in a great part of the army, which were but too operative in obstructing the progress of such military sentiments. In New England, from whence the war had, as yet, been principally supported, the zeal excited by the revolution had taken such a direction, as in a great degree, to abolish those distinctions between the platoon-officers and the soldiers, which are so indispensable to the formation of an army capable of being applied to all the purposes of war. In many instances, these officers, who constitute so important a part of every army, were elected by the men; and a disposition to associate with them, on the footing

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footing of equality, was a recommendation of much more weight, and frequently conduced much more to the choice, than individual merit. It has been stated, by gentlemen of high rank, that, in some instances, those were elected, who agreed to put their pay in mess with the soldiers, and to divide equally with them. Among such officers, the most disgraceful and unmilitary practices frequently prevailed; and the privates could not sufficiently respect them, to acquire habits of obedience and subordination.'

The sketch of Washington in the following passage lays claim at least to accuracy:

'Among the many valuable traits in the character of General Washington, was that unyielding firmness of mind which resisted these accumulated circumstances of depression, and supported him under them. Undismayed by the dangers which surrounded him, he did not, for an instant, relax his exertions, nor omit any thing which could obstruct the progress of the enemy, or ameliorate his own condition. He did not appear to despair of the public safety, but struggled against adverse fortune, with the hope of yet vanquishing the difficulties which surrounded him; and constantly shewed himself to his harassed and enfeebled army, with a serene unembarrassed countenance, betraying no fears within himself, and invigorating and inspiring with confidence the bosoms of others. To this unconquerable firmness of temper, to this perfect self possession, under the most desperate circumstances, is America, in a great degree, indebted for her independence.'

The effects of the bold, judicious, and unexpected attacks made at Trenton and Princeton, by forces believed to have been vanquished, are here ably stated:

'These advantages (we are told) had an influence on the fate of the war much more extensive in its consequences, than from a mere estimate of the killed, and taken, would be supposed. They saved Philadelphia for the present winter; they recovered the state of Jersey; and, which was of still more importance, they revived the drooping spirits of America, and gave a sensible impulse to the recruiting service throughout the United States.

'The problem, whether a nation can be defended, against a permanent force, by temporary armies; by occasional calls of the husbandman from his plough to the field; was already solved: and in its demonstration, the independence of America had nearly perished in its cradle. All eyes were now turned on the army to be created for the ensuing campaign, as the only solid basis on which the hopes of the patriot could rest. During the retreat through the Jerseys, and while the expectation prevailed, that no effectual resistance could be made to the advance of the enemy, some spirited men, indeed, were only animated to greater and more determined exertions; but such was not the operation of this state of things on the great mass from whence is to be drawn the solid force of armies. There appeared, especially in the middle states, the pause of distrust. Doubts, concerning the issue of the contest, became more extensive; and the business

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siness of recruiting proceeded so heavily and slowly, as to excite the most anxious solicitude for the future.

'The affairs of Trenton and Princeton were represented and considered as great victories. They were believed, by the body of the people, to evidence the superiority of their army, and of their general. The opinion that they were engaged in a hopeless contest yielded to a confidence, that proper exertions on their part would be crowned with ultimate success.'

This volume terminates with deliberations, much resembling the minutes of a council of state, which will, we presume, be deemed worthy of perusal by our readers:

'When reduced to their lowest ebb, towards the close of 1776, while the tide of fortune was running strongest against them, some few members, distrusting their ability to make a successful resistance, proposed to authorise commissioners, deputed to the court of Versailles, to transfer to that country the same monopoly of their trade which Great Britain had hitherto enjoyed. This proposition is stated to have been relinquished, because it was believed that concessions of this kind would destroy the force of many arguments which had been used in favour of independence, and probably disunite the people. It was next proposed to offer a monopoly of certain enumerated articles of produce: to this, the clashing interests of the different states were so directly opposed, that it received a speedy and decided negative. Some proposed offering to France a league offensive and defensive; but this also was rejected. The more enlightened members of Congress argued, that, though the friendship of small states might be purchased, that of France could not. They alleged, that, if she would risk a war with Great Britain, by openly espousing their cause, it would not be so much from the prospect of direct advantages, as from a natural desire to lessen the overgrown power of a dangerous rival. It was therefore supposed, that the only inducement likely to influence France to an interference, was an assurance that the United States were determined to persevere in refusing to return to their former allegiance. Under the influence of this better opinion, resolutions were again entered into, declaratory of their determination to listen to no terms founded on the idea of their resuming the character of British subjects, but trusting the event to Providence, and risking all consequences; to adhere to the independence they had declared, and the freedom of trade they had proffered to all nations. Copies of these resolutions were sent to the principal courts of Europe; and proper persons were appointed to solicit their friendship to the new-formed states. These dispatches fell into the hands of the British, and by them were published—a circumstance by no means unwished for by Congress; who were persuaded, that an apprehension of their making up all differences with Great Britain was a principal objection to the interference of foreign courts in what was represented to be no more than a domestic quarrel. A resolution, adopted in the deepest distress, and in the worst of times, that Congress would listen to no terms of re-union with the parent state would, it was believed, convince those who wished for the dismemberment of the British empire, that it

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it was sound policy to interfere so far as would prevent the conquest of the United States.'

These homely colonists appear to have been more sagacious politicians than the fine gentlemen who composed the cabinet of Great Britain.

A third volume has appeared, and will be the subject of a future article.

ART. III. *Analytical Essays towards promoting the Chemical Knowledge of Mineral Substances.* By Martin Henry Klaproth, Professor of Chemistry at Berlin, &c. &c. Vol. II. Translated from the German. 8vo. pp. 267. 6s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1804.

IN the year 1795, this veteran mineralogist collected the analytical papers which he had consigned to various periodical publications, and formed them into a separate volume. A second made its appearance in 1797; and the valuable contents of both were translated into English, and published in a single octavo in 1801 *. Nearly about the same time, the author published a third volume, of which we have now to announce the translation. As it contains forty-four essays, or chemical examinations of as many kinds of recently discovered or interesting mineral substances, we purpose, agreeably to the mode in which we reported the first two volumes of the original, (xxii. N. S. p. 571. and xxv. p. 579.) to point out the titles, and some of the most important results. The enumeration will necessarily be dry, but by no means unacceptable to our mineralogical readers.

LXXIII. *Auriferous Ores from Transylvania.*—This paper is particularly valuable on account of the variety of the specimens submitted to examination. Müller first suggested that the *aurum paradoxum*, or *metallum problematicum* of the German mineralogists, was perhaps a distinct metal. Professor Klaproth, who analyzed it with particular attention, confirmed the conjecture, and denominated this native ore *Tellurium*. A thousand grains of the ore were found to yield 925.50 of Tellurium, 72 of iron, and 2.50 of gold.

Of all the fusible metals, Tellurium possesses the least specific gravity, being to water only as 6,185 to 1,000. It likewise fuses before ignition, melting later than lead, but sooner than antimony. 'Upon charcoal, before the blow-pipe, it *inflames* with a violence resembling detonation, with a vivid, light-blue, and on the edges greenish flame, and entirely flies off in

* Noticed at page 98 of the 39th vol. of our New Series.

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vapours of the appearance of a grey white smoke; which invests the charcoal in the most contiguous places with a white, but the remoter ones with a bluish coating, and is also particularly distinguished by the somewhat nauseous *radish-like smell* which it emits.'

One hundred grains of the *aurum graphicum* (*Schrifterz* of the Germans) gave of native tellurium 60, gold 30, silver 10.—The yellow auriferous ore, in which the gold exists *native*, contains 44.75 tellurium, 26.75 gold, 19.50 lead, 8.50 silver, 0.50 sulphur.—The foliated or lamellar ore (*Blättererz*), now properly considered as a distinct species, exhibits the following proportions of ingredients:—lead 54, tellurium 32.2, gold 9, silver 0.5, copper 1.3, sulphur 3.

LXXIV. *Sulphurated Oxyd of Manganese, from Transylvania.*—This unusual combination of a black sulphurated oxyde of manganese, from Szekeremb in Transylvania, contains, when purified, oxyde of manganese, soluble in nitric acid, 82, carbonic acid 5, sulphur 11.

LXXV. *Tungstate of Lime from Schlackenwalde in Bohemia.*—Among the important discoveries of Scheele, was that of a peculiar metallic substance in the tungstate of lime. The pearl-coloured variety, from the iron mine of *Bitsberg*, in Sweden, gave to that eminent chemist, oxyde of tungsten 65, lime 31, silex 4: whereas the Bohemian specimen yielded to M. Klaproth, oxyde of tungsten 77.75, lime 17.60, silex 3. The constituents of a Cornish specimen were found to be, oxyde of tungsten 75.25, lime 18.70, silex 1.50, oxyde of iron 1.25, oxyde of manganese 0.75.

LXXVI. *Gadolinite.*—The Professor's experiments on this new earth, which contains yttria, fully confirm the observations of Gadolin and Ekeberg; and they suggest, moreover, a new method, borrowed from Gehlen, of separating the oxyde of iron from earthy bodies: namely, by dissolving the mass in sulphuric acid, and, the latter being neutralized, adding succinat of soda to the solution, when the iron is precipitated in the state of a succinate.

'By way of conclusion, (says the author,) I add only this remark, that it is not always advisable, to take the denomination of a new-discovered substance or natural body from any one of its properties singly. At the time that *Vauquelin* gave to the new earth which he discovered in the beryl and emerald, the name of *glucine* or *sweet earth*, from its property of forming sweet neutral salts; he certainly did not expect that shortly after another earth would be found, entitled with an equal right to claim the same name. Whence, in order to prevent the confounding the glucine with yttria, it might perhaps be prudent to suppress the denomination, *glucine*: and to use in its stead that of *Beryllina*; which last has already been recommended by

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by Professor *Link*, more especially upon the ground that there already exists a genus of plants called *glusine*.'

LXXVII. *Egyptian Natrum.* Five hundred grains, freed from earthy admixture, contain 163 carbonate of soda, 104 sulphate of soda, 75 muriate of soda, and 158 water of crystallization.

LXXVIII. *Striated Soda.* Carbonate of soda, recently crystallized, and exposed to the open air in warm weather, gradually loses its water of crystallization, effloresces, and crumbles into a farinaceous powder. The striated species, however, though produced in the interior parts of Africa, is not liable to this species of decomposition. This apparent anomaly is justly ascribed to a much larger portion of the carbonic acid than exists in the ordinary carbonate, or, as it should rather be termed, *sub-carbonate*. One hundred parts of the striated soda from Tripoli contain, water of crystallization 22.50, carbonic acid 38, pure soda 37, sulphate of soda 2.50; while freshly prepared crystals of the sub-carbonate consist of soda 22, carbonic acid 16, water of crystallization 62.

LXXIX. *Native Muriate of Ammonia.*—Native muriate of ammonia, from Mount Vesuvius, was found pure, with the exception of one half *per cent.* of sea-salt; and that from Bokarian Tartary contained 2½ *per cent.* of sulphate of ammonia.

LXXX. *Sassolin.* The native boracic acid has been so denominated from *Sasso*, in the Siennese territory, where it was discovered by Professor Maseagni. Its constituents are 86 boracic acid, 11 sulphate of manganese, (with a small admixture of iron,) and 3 sulphate of lime.

LXXXI. *Plumose Alum, from Freyenwalde.* The sulphate of alumine, which is spontaneously generated on the aluminous schistus at *Freyenwalde*, in the Margraviate of Brandenburg, is of a greyish white, when fresh, but acquires a dirty yellow coating in the air. It presents aggregates of very fine capillary, and mostly curvilinear fibres. Its constituent parts are, alumine 15.25, oxyde of iron 7.50, pot-ash 0.25, sulphuric acid and water of crystallization 77.

LXXXII. *Capillary Salt from Idria.* The fine capillary filaments and needle-shaped crystals of a silver white colour, and upwards of two inches long, which occur in the fissures of schistus, in the quick silver mines at Idria, and which were long supposed to be plumose alum, are here shewn to be a native sulphate of magnesia, contaminated by a small portion of sulphated iron.

LXXXIII. *Elastic Bitumen from Derbyshire.* This singular substance has been too minutely described by Mr. Hatchett and others in this country, to delay us in our hasty sketch of the contents of these essays. For the present, the learned Professor

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fessor acquiesces in Mr. Hatchett's explanation of the elastic property of this species of bitumen.

LXXXIV. *Mellilite.* The results obtained by different chemists, who had submitted this rare fossil to examination, were far from being satisfactory. From the cautious and delicate mode of investigation detailed in these pages, we may now safely infer that the constituent proportions are, a peculiar *vegetable* acid, denominated *mellitic*, 46, alumina 16, water of crystallization 38.—Mellilite, or honey-stone, occurs in the stratum of earthy brown-coal at Artern, in Thuringia. Its colour is usually that of a honey-yellow, more or less bright. It is always crystallized, sometimes in octahedrons, but most frequently in fragments of quadrilateral pyramids. It is soft, brittle, and usually even and shining. Its specific gravity is 1,550. When thrown into nitric acid, it is wholly taken up by this solvent, without heat, and continues clear until the dissolution is accomplished. Hence we have an easy and sure test of genuine mellilite.

LXXXV. *Umbra.* The *umbra* of former mineralogists is a brown pulverulent earth, or coal, the *mumia vegetabilis* of Cronstedt, and *humus umbra* of Wallerius. Genuine umber, on the contrary, which forms the subject of this analysis, belongs to the ores of iron. The specimens employed by the author came from the island of Cyprus, and agreed in external characters with that sort which is sold to the painters, under the appellation of *Fine umber from Turkey.* It consists of oxyde of iron 48, oxyde of manganese 20, silex 13, alumina 5, water 14. This statement differs considerably from that of Santi, who employed the *Castel del Piaro* umbra, and reported, oxyde of iron 53, argillaceous earth 24, silex 19, magnesia 4.

LXXXVI. *Muriated Lead Ore.* The specimen, furnished by Mr. Greville, came from Derbyshire; and it yielded, on analysis, oxyde of lead 85.50, muriatic acid 8.50, carbonic acid, including water of crystallization, perhaps present, 6.

'In the muriate of lead prepared by art, the proportion of the acid amounts to from 13 to 14 *per cent.* But, in the native muriate of lead, the metallic constituent part is not *quite perfectly* saturated with the muriatic acid. This explains how in this last, besides the muriatic, carbonic acid also may be present.'

LXXXVII. *Phosphated Lead Ores.* These were procured from *Zschopau*, *Hoffsgrund* in the Brisgaw, *Huelgoet*, in Britany, and *Wanlockhead*, in Scotland. The first contains oxyde of lead 78.40, phosphoric acid 18.37, muriatic acid 1.70, oxyde of iron 0.10.—The second, oxyde of lead 77.10, phosphoric acid 19, muriatic acid 1.54, oxyde of iron 0.10.—The third, oxyde of lead 78.58, phosphoric acid 19.73, muriatic acid 1.65.

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1.65.—The fourth, oxyde of lead 80, phosphoric acid 18, muriatic acid 1.62.

'The result from the analytical processes, which I have just now described, may contribute towards establishing a more correct classification of lead ores, in *mineralogical systems* grounded on *chemical principles*; at the same time that it sufficiently shews the impropriety of deriving the specific names of fossils from their colours.

'The presence of *muriatic acid* in the phosphated lead ores is indeed remarkable, and it is no less so that, upon the whole, its proportion to the phosphoric acid is constantly the same in these fossils.'

LXXXVIII. *Sulphated Lead Ores.* Sulphate of lead from *Anglesea* gives in the hundred, oxyde of lead 71, sulphuric acid 24.80, water of crystallization 2, oxyde of iron 1.—The tabular sort from *Wanlockhead* consists of oxyde of lead 70.50, sulphuric acid 25.75, water of crystallization 2.25.

LXXXIX. *Tabular White Lead Ore, from Lead Hills* (Scotland). This is a carbonated species, and affords, lead 77, oxygen 5, carbonic acid 16, loss, including the water of crystallization, if any present, 2.

XC. *Native reguline Antimony, from Andréasberg.* The specimen here examined was almost pure, containing only 1 *per cent.* of silver, and one-fourth *per cent.* of iron.

XCI. *Antimoniated Silver, from Andréasberg.* The constituents are 77 of silver, and 23 of metallic antimony, nearly agreeing with a former analysis by Abrich.

XCII. *Fibrous red Antimonial Ore.* It is found at Braimsdorf, in Saxony, is of a cherry red, and forms delicate capillary, or acicular crystals. Its specific gravity is 4.090, and its ingredients are metallic antimony 67.50, oxygen 10.80, sulphur 19.70.

XCIII. *White Ore of Antimony.* This ore was discovered about twenty years ago in the mines of Przibram. It proves to be a pure oxyde of antimony, without any muriatic acid, which it had been formerly supposed to contain.

XCIV. *Arseniated Olive Copper Ore.* The recent descriptions of this substance, by the Count de Bourbon and Mr. Chenevix, in some measure supersede the observations with which we are here presented. Yet the discrepancies of the results, as reported by these practised analysts, is truly remarkable.

XCV. *Muriated Ore of Copper.* This *green sand* from Peru was first analyzed by Berthollet and Proust. It is properly a sub-muriat, as it yields only 10.1 of muriatic acid, 16.9 of water of crystallization, and 73 of oxyde of copper.

XCVI. *Phosphated Ore of Copper.* This mineral combination was discovered by the author. It is found not far from Rheinbreidbach, on the Rhine, where it was mistaken for

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malachite. One hundred grains of this ore consist of 68.13 oxyde of copper, and 30.95 of phosphoric acid.

XCVII. *Kryolite.* Only a few specimens of this fossil were, some years ago, brought to Copenhagen. Professor Abildgaard, who first analyzed it, discovered that it was composed of fluoric acid and alumina. He shared with our author the solitary portion of it which remained in his possession; and on submitting it to a more rigid examination, M. Klaproth obtained soda 36, alumina 24, fluoric acid, including the water, 40.

XCVIII. *Beryl.* The Professor's analysis does not essentially differ from a preceding report by Vauquelin.

XCIX. *Emerald.* Here we have a confirmation of the ingenious conjecture of Haüy, since verified by Vauquelin, that, from the similarity of the crystals of Beryl and Emerald, glucine probably existed in the latter. The specimen, which the author subjected to trial, was of a very pale green. Its chemical decomposition manifested, silex 68.50, alumina 15.75, glucine 12.50, lime 0.25, oxyde of iron 1, oxyde of chromum 0.30. As Vauquelin obtained no oxyde of iron, he contends that it is not a constituent part of the Emerald.

C. *Klingstone.* Such is the German appellation of a species of *Schistose porphyry*, of secondary trapp formation, which is sonorous, when struck. The details relative to its history and chemical treatment are peculiarly interesting. We shall copy that part of them, which describes the very ingenious expedient of detecting the soda which enters into the composition of this mineral:

'*a*) *Hundred* grains of levigated klingstone were mixed, by trituration, with 400 grains of *crystallized nitrate of barytes*, and in a capacious porcelain vessel exposed first to a moderate, but afterwards to a heat gradually raised to ignition. The mixture entered into a thickish fusion and tumefied. When the intumescence was over and the heat rendered a little more intense, there arose, on uncovering the vessel, from the heavily melting mass some thick, white fumes; which I took for an indication that the soda was beginning to volatilize. For this reason I directly removed the fire.

'*b*) After refrigeration the mass was pale-bluish, porous in the manner of sponge, and easily pulverizable. When drenched with water and treated with *muriatic acid* it dissolved entirely, yielding a clear, yellow fluid. This solution was evaporated in a porcelain dish placed upon a sand bath, and at the same time gradually combined with as much of rectified *sulphuric acid* as was necessary; not only to precipitate the barytic earth in the state of sulphated barytes, but also that the same acid, after the total expulsion of the muriatic, continued notably predominant in the fluid.

'*c*) Having reduced the saline mass to a moderate dryness, I again diffused it in water; separated the sediment, which consisted of the generated

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generated sulphate of barytes and the siliceous ingredient in the stone, by means of the filter; and saturated the clear fluid with ammoniac. The precipitate obtained was filtered off, the neutralized liquor evaporated to dryness, and upon this kept, in a porcelain vessel, in a moderately intense heat, until all the sulphate of ammoniac was gone off. The remaining fixed portion, when dissolved in water and crystallized, proved to be *pure sulphate of soda.* This was afresh dissolved, and decomposed with *acetated barytes;* upon which the precipitated barytic sulphate was separated by filtration, the filtered clear fluid evaporated, and the dry acetate of soda heated to redness in a platina crucible. The coaly residue gave, by solution in water and filtration, a clear, colourless lixivium, which upon evaporation to siccity left 14 grains of dry carbonate of soda, in which the portion of *pure soda* makes $8\frac{1}{10}$ grains. This, when neutralized with nitric acid, shooted entirely into rhomboidal crystals of nitrated soda.

'Yet, it may be fairly supposed, that, in the natural composition of klingstone, the soda exists in a somewhat greater proportion than is indicated by the quantity obtained. For, besides that in general some loss is unavoidable in the different operations, I think that already at the ignition of the barytes a certain portion of the soda is volatilized: which to suppose I am induced by the vapours which, as I have mentioned before, visibly escaped in a filamentous form on removing the lid of the vessel.

'After this preliminary remark I now return to the results from the analysis of *klingstone.*—These, then, give its constituent parts and their proportions in the *hundred* as follows:

Silex	II. a)	57.	25
Alumine	c) . . .	23.	50
Lime	b) 2. 25 }	2.	75
	c) 0. 50 }		
Oxyd of iron	d)	3.	25
Oxyd of manganese . . .	e)	0.	25
Soda	IV. c)	8.	10
Water	I. a)	3.	
		98	10

'The reflecting Natural Philosopher will know, without my suggesting it, how to appreciate the value of this discovery of the presence of soda, as a constituent part in a stone which occurs in masses of the size of entire mountains. It opens to him a new view, and leads him a long step farther in his geological inquiries. We now see that there is no longer any occasion for the theory hitherto prevailing, according to which it was imagined necessary to consider all the *soda,* which in nature occurs either in a *free,* that is uncombined, or in the *carbonated state,* as an *educt* arising from a decomposition of rock salt, or of sea-salt, or of that from saline springs, supposed to have been carried on by nature, and to have taken place in an unknown manner.'

The lofty *Donnersberge,* which overtops the middle mountains of Bohemia, is entirely composed of klingstone. 'If we

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now reflect (says the author) that, in this enormous mass of rock, the soda constitutes nearly the twelfth part of the whole; I hope it will not be thought an exaggeration to say, that this mountain is alone capable of providing, for a long succession of years *to come*, all Europe with sufficient soda: presupposing, however, that expedients should be devised to separate this alkali from the stone, by a cheap and profitable method.'

CI. *Basalt.* The Professor is decidedly of opinion that basalt is formed in the humid way. That on which he performed his experiments was, apparently, almost homogeneous, though in reality mingled with speckles of hornblende, containing very rarely minute grains of olivin. It was taken from the colossal pillar on the top of the *Hasenberg*, in Bohemia. Its analysis, as here exhibited, approximates to that of Bergman in his dissertation *De Productis Volcanicis*, and to those of the late ingenious and accurate Dr. Kennedy.

CII. *Pitchstone.* One hundred grains of a specimen from Meissen gave, silex 73, alumina 14.50, lime 1, oxyde of iron 1, oxyde of manganese 0.10, soda 1.75, water 8.50.

CIII. *Addition to the Chemical Examination of Pumice-Stone.* To complete his former account of this volcanic product, the author instituted such experiments as led to the detection of three parts in the hundred of soda and pot-ash: but the proportion of each could not be ascertained, on account of the small quantity. . . . . .

CIV. *Jargon from Norway.* It is remarkable that this fossil should have been found in one of the most northern countries of Europe; and to the mineralogist it is rendered still more valuable, because it is accompanied with its matrix. This last is a coarse-grained stony mass, mixed with reddish feltspar, and black basaltic hornblende, in which the jargon is sparingly imbedded in transparent, light brown, octahedral crystals. From the figure of its primitive integrant particles, the sagacious Haüy first pronounced it to be a jargon; and his opinion is now sanctioned by the following results—jargonia 65, silex 33, oxyde of iron 1.

CV. *Madreporite.* Baron Moll discovered this calcareous stone, some years since, in the valley of *Russbach*, situated in the territory of Salzburg. It occurs on the surface of the vegetable mould, or immediately under it, in rounded lumps, of twenty or thirty pounds weight. It resembles prismatic basalt in miniature, is of a greyish black colour, quite opake, and is hard, brittle, and easily rent. According to a chemical analysis published by the Baron in his *Annals*, one hundred parts of it contain calcareous earth $63\frac{4}{16}$, alumina $10\frac{2}{16}$, silex $12\frac{4}{16}$, iron $10\frac{1}{16}$. The same results, expressed in round numbers, are

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are reported by Haüy as the amount of an analysis of madreporite, made in the *Ecole des Mines*, at Paris. Yet Klaproth, after having repeated his trials on the very specimen which was sent to him by Baron Moll himself, still found a very different constitution of parts, viz. carbonate of lime 93, carbonate of magnesia 0.50, carbonate of iron 1.25, carbon 0.50, arenaceous silex 4.50, oxyde of manganese, a trace.

CVI. *Pharmacolite.* This, as M. Selb had conjectured, proves to be an arseniate of lime. The proportions are, arsenic acid 50.54, lime 25, water 24.46.

CVII. *Scorza.* Such is the Wallachian name of a green sand, containing silex 43, alumina 21, lime 14, oxyde of iron 16.50, oxyde of manganese 0.25.

CVIII. *Fibrous Sulphate of Barytes.* As this article is short, and relates to a new variety, we shall give it entire:

'The present fossil, which has been given me as a scarce species of *calamine*, comes from *New-Leiningen*, in the *Palatinate*. I thought it deserving a closer examination; by which I found, that it is not a native oxyd of zinc, but a *sulphate of barytes*. However, it will appear from the description of its external characters drawn up by *Karsten*, that with respect to its external appearance, it differs from the other species of barytes, and that, on this account it ought, in the systematical arrangement of minerals, to be classed under the genus of barytes as a *new* and particular species.

The *fibrous barytes* is,

on the fresh fracture *chesnut-brown*;
has a shape partaking of the *kidney-form*
and *botryoidal*.

Its surface and external lustre not determinable because the fossil seems here to have been impaired by attrition.

Internally, *little shining*, of a *greasy gloss*.

Fracture *coarse fibrous*, the fibres *diverging* in a *feather-like* manner *).

Fragments, indeterminate angular,
of indistinctly detached, thick and coarse-grained pieces.

Transparent on the edges.

Soft,
heavy.

Its specific gravity I found to be, 4. 080.

'*a*) Before I proceeded to the decomposition of the quantity of this fossil destined for this purpose, I separated, by means of acetic

'* Such a manner of divergence of fibres I have not met with before; whoever is acquainted with the *plumose-striated surface*, will also know what is understood by the expression, in a *feather-like manner divergingly fibrous*.'

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acid, the calcareous earth, which externally stuck in the cavitie formed by the botryoidal shape. *Three hundred* grains of it were powdered, boiled with 600 grains of carbonate of pot-ash and water, evaporated to dryness; again diffused in water, and a second time evaporated. Upon subsequent dilution with water, the earth was separated by the filter and washed. This earth was treated with *muriatic acid*, which dissolved it with effervescence, leaving a residue of 18 grains. A second boiling with pot-ash in the same manner as before, entirely decomposed these 18 grains; and the separated earth now entirely dissolved in muriatic acid. The muriatic solution, evaporated to the point of crystallization, constantly gave muriate of barytes in its usual tabular form.

'*b*) All this muriated barytes was re-dissolved in water; the predominant pot-ash of the mentioned alkaline lye, which contained the sulphuric acid of the decomposed fossil, was neutralized with acetic acid, and both fluids mixed. By this management the sulphate of barytes was reproduced. Its weight, after edulcoration and drying, amounted to 297 grains; which agrees with the weight of the fossil employed, except the inconsiderable loss of 1 *per cent.* In the water used for elixiviating this barytic sulphate, a slight trace of iron was made to appear by Prussiate of pot ash.'

CIX. *Tabular Spar.* The *Tafel-spath* of the Germans. It consists of silex 50, lime 45, water 5.

CX. *Mienite.* This mineral substance has its name from *Miemo*, in Tuscany, where Dr. Thomson discovered it in 1791. Its constituents are carbonate of lime 53, carbonate of magnesia 42.50, carbonate of iron, a little magnesiated, 3. Hence it approximates to the nature of the *Tyrolese magnesian spar.*

CXI. *Prismatic Magnesian Spar.* Karsten so denominates a mineral substance which occurs, though rarely, in the cobalt-mines at Glücksbrunn, in the territory of Gotha. On analysis, it yields lime 33, magnesia 14.50, oxyde of iron 2.25, carbonic acid 47.50, water 2.75.

CXII. *Striated grey Ore of Manganese, from Ilefeld, and from Moravia.* The different proportions of oxygen gas given out by the two specimens are remarkable, the Ilefeld variety yielding only 2¼, and the Moravian 10½. From the former, on repeating the experiments, 7 *per cent.* of water was constantly obtained;—an allowance 'too great to admit of being considered as merely a *hygroscopic* moisture (imbibed from the atmosphere). On this ground it must unquestionably be taken for the water of crystallization in this ore of manganese.'

CXIII. *Earthy black Ore of Manganese.* The ore which forms the subject of this essay was collected some years ago, in the Dorothea mine, in the Hartz. It is found there in the form of a muddy, greasy substance, issuing from the clefts of the rocks: but, on exposure to the air, it soon dries to a very fine black

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black powder. The obtained constituents were, brown oxyde of manganese 68, oxyde of iron 6.50, carbon 1, barytes 1, silex 8, water 17.50.—'The increase of weight in this sum, probably depends on this circumstance, that the ignited oxyde of manganese has afterwards combined with a greater proportion of oxygen, than is contained in the natural composition of the crude fossil.'

CXIV. *Asphaltum, from Albania.* This species of bitumen, which forms large strata at *Avlona*, in Albania, is greyish-black, opake, greasy, soft, and light. It is supposed to have been the principal ingredient in the famous *feu Gregois*, or Grecian fire. It is chiefly composed of carbonated hydrogen gas, bituminous oil, carbon, and silex.

CXV. *Earthy-brown Coal.* This is the earthy carbonated wood of Kirwan. Alcohol extracts from it, by digestion, a brown-red tincture, which, on evaporation, leaves a deep brown-red extract, of a bitter taste.

CXVI. *Hungarian Pearl-stone.* Werner, who first ascertained its rank in the systematical arrangement, denominated this fossil *Pearl-stone*, from the granular aspect of its fragments. Professor Klaproth found it to contain silex 75.25, alumina 12, oxyde of iron 1.60, lime 0.50, pot-ash 4.50, water 4.50.

We regret that want of room prevents us from entering more fully into the contents and merits of this unassuming, but truly valuable book; which, in a small compass, comprizes much diversified, accurate, and important information. Each of the analytical treatises, of which we have done little more than announce the titles and the ultimate results, might furnish matter for critical dissertation: but we must be contented to express our *general* approbation, and to applaud the ingenuity, the modesty, and the candour which characterize the performance.

The translator appears to have executed his task with fidelity, and to be well acquainted with the subjects of his author's discussion: but either he is a foreigner, or from other causes he is very little practised in the idioms and niceties of the English language. Thus, he talks of errors of the *feather* (pen), employs *numeros* for *numbers*, *saxa* for *rocks*, *ebullient water* for *boiling water*, *mixed of* for *mixed with*, *shooted* for *shot*, and very gravely informs us how such a fossil *behaves* under the blow-pipe. The members of his sentences are often clumsy, or strangely distorted. *Almost all what hitherto has with certainty been known* is a very awkward mode of expression, especially in the beginning of a paragraph. The following, owing to unnatural inversion, and improper punctuation, is scarcely intelligible: *To a perfectly neutralized, and with water but moderately diluted, muriatic solution of yttria was added Prussian*

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alkali. The next is "like unto it." '*On mixing this acid with a solution of acetated barytes, a white, and in nitric acid again soluble precipitate is likewise obtained.*' The expression *hundred grains* will require at least *one hundred grains of allowance.*

We shall be glad to announce the translation of Emmerling's Mineralogy by the same hand, provided that the MS. and proof-sheets be previously submitted to the revision of a competent English friend.

ART. IV. *The Professional Life of Mr. Dibdin*, written by himself. Together with the Words of Six hundred Songs selected from his Works, and Sixty small Prints taken from the Subjects of the Songs. And invented, etched, and prepared for the Aqua Tinta by Miss Dibdin. Embellished with a Portrait of Mr. Dibdin. 8vo. 4 Vols. 1l. 1s. sewed. Longman and Co.

IT has been remarked by Dr. Johnson, that, much as we may lament the ravages of death, "Nobody is missed:" perhaps it may with not less truth be asserted that, while living, No one can draw to himself any extensive and permanent regard. Those individuals of which the great multitude is composed are too closely occupied with their own narrow and selfish pursuits, to think much or long of the interest or fame of others; hence the exertions of merit, as well as the displays of vanity, attract only a transient notice; and appeals to the public, however ingeniously managed, are more frequently a source of mortification than of triumph. Complaining, like begging, is no prepossessing mode of introduction; and he must have better luck than commonly falls to the share of mortals, who obtains respect by detailing his grievances and mortifications. Mr. Dibdin's experience and knowlege of the world should have taught him how soon the generous emotions of our nature are stifled by those of an opposite tendency, and how little genuine social virtue constitutes the cement of what is called Society. He owns indeed that 'he could never comprehend the world as a social system.' As a combination of selfishness, it is easily understood; and the different respect which is paid to the rich and to the poor, to the prosperous and to the unfortunate, sufficiently explains the nature of the friendship of mankind.

Men of genius and creative talents, who have contributed to amuse their fellow-creatures, are apt to suppose that they can arrest the general tide of selfishness in its course, and fix the public attention on their destiny: but, in most attempts of this kind, they over-rate their own consequence, even in the estimation of their admirers; they forget the observation of

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Lord Orford, that "the best parts of authors are their works;" and that it does not follow, because they have written to please, that the world is solicitous to learn the ordinary occurrences of their lives. To obviate the charge of vanity and egotism in thus detailing the particulars of his own history, Mr. D. informs us that he has been threatened with a publication, in which the principal events of his professional life were to be exhibited; and which could not be rendered abortive unless he himself stepped forwards and anticipated it. If this measure should prevent calumny and misrepresentation, we congratulate him on its adoption; though it is obvious that he was actuated by another motive than that of pure self-defence. While he exposes 'the tiny vanity which nourished Garrick's inflated mind,' does he not by this publication expose himself to some such charge? We wish to render ample justice to Mr. D.'s genius and industry; and we read with concern of the difficulties which have embarrassed his exertions: but we are of opinion that his sufferings are not sufficiently sublime to interest the public; that his disagreements with managers, proprietors, and music-sellers, however important to himself, scarcely deserve a pompous recitation; and that, resting his professional fame on the merit of his numerous compositions, it would have been wiser to have passed over, in a dignified silence, the obloquy of his enemies, and to have solaced his retirement with that self-commendation which, by his own confession, makes full amends for the censure of the ignorant and the illiberal.

Mr. Dibdin does not enumerate all the circumstances of his life, (and so far he has not furnished a complete piece of biography,) but confines himself for the most part to his professional employments and undertakings; and he has swelled out the publication with numbers of his songs, in the composition of which, as to quantity, and frequently as to quality, he stands unrivalled, and which will be thought by many to constitute the chief excellence of the volumes before us. This indefatigable lyric poet does not tell us when he was born, nor does he afford many dates through the whole of his narrative: but he states that he was the son of a silversmith at Southampton, a man of considerable credit in that city. The following is the account which he gives of his commencement in life:

'Young men thrown upon the world are straws in a torrent, as it hastens to the ocean; some are precipitated to the bottom, others driven out to sea, and others, returned, by the eddy, rest in tranquillity from the general tumult. No young man was ever more completely in this situation than myself; and if by repeated struggles I have at length purchased a little quiet, I have, perhaps, more to thank chance than my own prudence. That I gained the eddy was owing to

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to an insatiate thirst for information, which has acted as an impetus on my mind from my infancy, and which could not have been indulged had I sailed down the strong current of life.

'Impulsive, however, as this desire of knowledge was, I never could do more than one thing at a time, and that is the reason, perhaps, that I have done so much. Music was my supreme delight; it possessed and engrossed me, nor would my mind admit of any thing else, at least materially, till I had fully accomplished all that I found necessary for my purpose; and thus it happened that, though my father intended me for the church, and I suffered the common imposition of what is usually called education, it was rather like something laid by for future, than intended for immediate use. My darling passion for music was also fed fortuitously. I had, when a boy, a remarkable good voice; and therefore, I not only cut a great figure at the college and the cathedral, at Winchester, where I sung anthems, but the concert rooms, at the races and the assizes, echoed with my vocal fame.

'A weekly subscription concert was in great measure on this account established, at which the instrumental performers were principally clergymen, as well as the subscribers, which latter were of the dignified kind. Dr. Eden, the archdeacon, a man of great suavity, and most winning manners, and whose kindness and advice to me, though I was then but twelve years old, I shall never forget; Dr. Hoadley, the chancellor, of whom I have spoken in the history of the stage, whose beneficence dignified him a thousand times more than his situation or his being the son of a bishop: these, and many other gentlemen, among whom were the Biddulphs, Mr. Cornwall, afterwards speaker of the House of Commons, Colonel Cæsar, and a long list of residents in the vicinity of Winchester, were among the number of the subscribers.

'Mr. Ashe, Madge Cotton, the brother of him who travestied Virgil, and a list of other beneficed clergymen in the neighbourhood, composed the band, and I was the principal singer. Being thus employed, and banded about at the houses of almost all the prebends in the close, and now and then stolen away by the officers at the camp, I had but little leisure, and indeed inclination, to make any thing but music my study; and, if I had not been rejected on account of my youth, when I put up for an organist's place at Waltham, in Hampshire, it is not impossible but I should have been obliged to content myself with thirty pounds a year, an annual concert, and snacking my profits, as a teacher, with the governess of a country boarding-school.

'While I was inquiring for another vacancy, my brother, a very celebrated seaman, the particulars of whose life I have faithfully recounted, under the name of Captain Higgins, in my novel of "Hannah Hewet," gave me a most hearty invitation to London, and assured me he could certainly provide for me to my entire satisfaction. My fortune was now made, as it has been since very frequently, in idea. To town I came; visited all the churches; fell in love with extempore playing; soon learned to handle *Moll Peatley*, *Bobbin Joan*, and *Lilaballero*, in a voluntary; and, little as such a circumstance may be suspected of me, by favour of a deputy-organist, I often played the congregation

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gregation out of church, at St. Bride's, before I was sixteen years old.'

A man of Mr. Dibdin's musical talents and fertile invention soon found his way to the theatres; he breakfasted with Beard, dined with Rich, and hence began his dramatical career. It will not be required of us to follow him in his account of his engagements and disagreements with Mr. Garrick, and afterward with Mr. Harris the manager of Covent-Garden; to enter into the particulars of his planning the Circus at Blackfriar's Bridge, and subsequently quarrelling with Hughes and Grimaldi; to attend him to Exeter-Change, the Lyceum, and Leicester-square, where he stood alone without the aid or embarrassment of partnership; to pursue him in his country excursions, in which he bitterly complains of the difficulties and rebuffs which he sustained on being considered as an impostor, or as the personator of himself, and not the real Mr. Dibdin; or at last to trace him to a music-shop. It will be sufficient thus to hint at the leading passages of his life, which has not been of the most prosperous nature; for he remarks it as 'a curious trait in his fortune, that he has met with men whose minds were full of depravity, and who were alike strangers to justice and humanity.'

If, however, Mr. D. has been unfortunate, he has not been idle. 'I have written,' says he, 'in the course of my life, exclusive of my entertainments of Sans Souci, nearly seventy dramatic pieces, of different descriptions, besides having set to music fifteen or sixteen, the productions of other writers. In the whole of those which I have invented and brought forward, are included more than nine hundred songs, a number, I should imagine, not again to be found in the English language.'

In the third volume, Mr. D. explains himself on the subject of his industry and rapid composition:

'Though the songs which I have written and composed have amounted to a number so far beyond credibility, that the fact could not be believed but for the chapter and verse proof of it given in this narrative, yet they have employed, comparatively, a very small portion of my time. The same impulse that inspired the words, has generally given birth to the music, and those that are the most celebrated, have been produced with the least trouble. I begun and completed The Sailor's Journal in half an hour; and I could mention, perhaps, thirty very prominent songs, that did not take in the writing and composing more than three quarters of an hour each.

'Upon this mode of calculation, giving the most extensive allowance of time for those songs, which from the nature of their subjects, and manner of treating them, required longer consideration, a circumstance, by the way, that always incurs the risk of coldness and formality, no one of my entertainments has taken me more than a month

in

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in perfecting it; and, therefore, as I have already mentioned that I do something every day, the mystery will be easily solved how I have fabricated so much; which fact, as it has been generally considered to consist of more than any one man could accomplish, has generated the idea that, like eminent engravers, I permit my name to what does not belong to me.'

Of the numerous songs which have flowed with such rapidity from Mr. Dibdin's facetious pericranium, we shall record two or three specimens:

'BALLAD.

I.

'At a jovial meeting of gods once on high,
Ere Bacchus was hatch'd from old Jupiter's thigh,
This one told his story, and that sung his song,
And did what he could lest the time should seem long.

Apollo read verses, the Graces wreath'd flowers,
The Muses of harmony sung forth the powers.
Bully Mars crack'd his joke, and sly Momus his jest;
Yet their mirth wanted someting to give it a zest.

II.

'Says Jove, our assembly to day's pretty full,
Yet, I don't know how 'tis, we are horridly dull;
We have all the ingredients that mirth should inspire,
But some clay-born alloy damps our heavenly fire.

I have it,—in this I'll a mixture inclose
Of all the delights whence good fellowship flows,
And we'll taste of its produce, for mirth's bad at best
When there's any thing wanting to give it a zest.

III.

'So saying, so doing, he buried the shrine,
Which quickly sprung up in the form of a vine,
The leaves broad and verdant, the fruit deepest blue,
Whence a juice flow'd that health, love, or youth might renew.

Its influence to feel, they came round it in swarms;
Mars took draughts of courage, and Venus drank charms;
Momus swallow'd bon mots, Cupid love—so the rest,
While Jove, spurning nectar, cry'd—'This is the zest.'

'BALLAD.

I.

'Be it known to all those whomsoe'r it regards,
That we singers of ballads were always call'd bards;
And from Ida to Grub-street the muses who follow
Are each mother's son the true spawn of Apollo.

Thus

Thus recording great men, or a flea, or a star,
Or the spheres, or a jew's harp, we're all on a par;
Nor in this do I tell you a word of a lie,
For Homer sung ballads and so do I.

II.

'Don't you know what the ancients were?—great things they talk'd,
How they rode upon Pegasus—that's to say, walk'd—
That near kindred gods they drove Phœbus's chariot,
The English of which is—they liv'd in a garret.

And thus they went forward, Diogenes quaff'd,
Heraclitus cried, and Democritus laugh'd,
Menander made multitudes both laugh and cry,
But Homer sung ballads and so do I.

III.

'Thus did they strange whimsical notions pursue,
Some argued on one leg, and some upon two,
To which last my pretensions are not hypothetic,
For it is certainly clear I'm a peripatetic.

Lycurgus and Solon 'bout laws made a pother.
Which went in at one ear, and then out at t'other,
Old songs, such as mine are, will nobody buy?
Come, Homer sung ballads and so do I.

IV.

'Historic was Pliny, and Plato divine,
Ovid wrote about love, and Anacreon wine,
Great Cicero argued to every man's palate,
And when he was out—'twas a hole in the ballad.

Thus to great men of old, who have made such a rout,
My claim to call cousin I've fairly made out,
And if any hereafter my right should deny,
Tell 'em Homer sung ballads and so do I.'

So many of the most attractive of Mr. Dibdin's compositions, and especially his sea-songs, have become generally known, that we must not indulge ourselves in copying them. Though these sea-songs have been so numerous, he complains that they have not procured him a single public compliment from the Navy, and that his place of performance has not been chosen as the scene of any acclamation for naval victories.—It would have afforded us real satisfaction to have found the scene of Mr. D.'s fortune brighten towards the conclusion of his work: but, though he takes his leave of the reader satisfied with the review of the past, he does not yet appear to have obtained a comfortable independence for the future:

'I have

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'I have now brought up to this present hour the most material circumstances of my professional life. I believe it will be unnecessary to say, that I have neither exaggerated nor extenuated in any one instance; and had I penetrated the mind of any other man, I am truly conscious, that I could not have delineated the motives of his conduct with more fidelity and impartiality than I have my own. As to envy and rancour, if I am acquainted with myself at all, I am a total stranger to any such passions. I know too well the comfort of content to enter the lists as a disputant upon any subject, and I should not have volunteered myself at all in the present instance, were it not that, as the world seem to know but little of either my pretensions or my character, I conceived it a fair thing to bare the truth to view, rather than be subject to a refutation of falsity, or an explanation of misconception.

'In speaking of myself I have used no ceremony, nor resorted to any subterfuge or reserve. In speaking of others, I have barely taken sufficient facts to bear out my charge, and have disdained either to feel or manifest any thing harsh and invidious. Upon the whole, I think my reputation will suffer in no respect from this publication; which, whatever it may be in point of value, really without being *facetious*, exceeds considerably in point of quantity, for the money, any thing that ever was produced; for, only reckoning the songs at a halfpenny a piece, and the prints at three-pence, the narrative and the portrait are given in, as the market-people call it, by way of a blessing.

'As to my future prospects, sincerely as I wish to have done with the world and its bustle, I am afraid I shall not find complete retirement so easy to accomplish as my hopes had flattered me; not, however, from any other want of means than the possession of a large stock, and the necessity of refreshing it with novelty to preserve it in some degree from stagnation. Whatever course I may find it expedient to take, I think I may venture to pronounce that, in spite of human frailty, I shall never swerve, either publicy or privately, from that independency of mind that I have made it my pride and happiness to adopt, adhering to the sentiments of my own song which I wrote when I was in possession of fewer worldly comforts;

'Happy in honours, power, and wealth,
If fate but grant my fond desire;
A blameless heart, unshaken health,
My friends, my bottle, and my lyre.'

According to Mr. D.'s statement, the four volumes containing his professional life form a cheap publication, and we hope that the sons of mirth and glee will justify his calculation. Several inaccuracies occur, which will be apparent to discerning readers.

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ART. V. *An Historical Review of the State of Ireland*, from the Invasion of that Country under Henry II. to its Union with Great Britain on the 1st of January 1801. By Francis Plowden, Esq. 4to. 2 large Volumes. (Vol. I. in Two Parts.) 4l. 4s. Boards. Egerton. 1803.

ART. VI. *A Postliminious Preface to the Historical Review of the State of Ireland*, by Francis Plowden, Esq., containing a Statement of the Author's Communications with the Right Hon. Henry Addington, and some of his Colleagues, on the Subject of that Work; some Observations on Lord Redesdale's Letters to the Earl of Fingall, &c. 4to. 3s. Carpenter. 1804.

IT happened that, conspicuous as is the magnitude of this work, our attention was not directed towards it at the time of its appearance; and we cannot now regret the delay, since we have consequently been enabled to peruse in connection with it the preface which has subsequently appeared under the *Jus Postliminii*, and which now claims its natural station, and demands our notice in the first place. We shall find that its contents are peculiarly interesting.

The author seems to have been strongly impressed with the idea that the measures and declarations of the party known by the name of the *Orange-men* were highly injurious to the interests of Ireland; that the ascendancy of this faction was employed to extend and foster aversion from the union, and to keep alive and inflame those political and religious animosities which it was so desirable to allay. This conviction, we are told, induced him, in the year 1801, to request an interview with the then Premier, Mr. Addington, which he was fortunate enough to obtain. On this occasion, Mr. Plowden submitted to the Minister,

'That the calumny, traduction, and misrepresentation, under which the bulk of the Irish laboured, was a national grievance; that nothing could tend more powerfully to excite and promote rebellion, than to hold out, consider, and deal with them as with incorrigible rebels by disposition, principle, and religion; that the evil was increased by the countenance and forced circulation given to Sir R. Musgrave's Memoirs of the Irish Rebellions; a work so false, inflammatory, and malignant, that Lord Cornwallis had been forced publicly to disclaim the dedication of it: that the Irish nation was pre-eminently fond of historical justice, and felt more sensibly than any other people the deprivation of it: that it therefore had become an object of national importance, that a fair, impartial, and authentic history of that country should be written to counteract the effects of Sir R. Musgrave's and such other *Orange* publications, in order to reconcile the public mind in Ireland to the measure of union. That the Premier might be put into the full possession of the author's sentiments upon the state of Ireland, he delivered to him a copy of the letter and paper

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paper written twelve years before, and then presented to Mr. Pitt, and took the liberty of desiring that they might be kept by him as a test of his sentiments, and a pledge of his fidelity in executing the commission, which he then received of writing an impartial and authentic history of Ireland, to shew the utility, and reconcile the Irish mind to the prospective advantages of the union. When on this occasion the author's proposal was acceded to by the Minister, a gracious remark accompanied that accession, that he was happy in employing the author's talents in an undertaking of so much utility to the public; and when reference was made to the observations of the Member of Parliament before noticed upon the unpopularity of the union, Mr. Addington observed, that *he feared that feeling was but too general in Ireland.* The author having consented to take the work in hand, and to go over to Ireland during the vacation, to procure materials and information, the Premier remarked, that the only remaining consideration was, to settle what compensation the author should be allowed for his time and trouble in going over to Ireland.'

The terms were adjusted, and the voluminous work before us is the result of the undertaking.

From the whole of the Preface, we collect that Mr. Addington is no mean adept in the language which is generally supposed to be appropriate to a statesman. The treaty above disclosed, which was formed by that Premier on the one part, and by Mr. Plowden on the other, exceedingly resembles in its course and in its consequences, another and more famed compact to which the same Minister was a party. The Preliminaries are well received, and cordially ratified by the Premier: but, when he is required to carry into execution some of the articles, he raises a controversy as to the terms. The Historical Reviewer is, it seems, a catholic. Mr. Addington, dissatisfied with the result of the negotiation, and strongly censuring his own conduct, justly blames himself for not having foreseen that Mr. Plowden would be favourable to the emancipation of his particular church; and vainly regrets that he did not embrace the fair proposal which the author made to him, of having his work inspected by some confidential friend of the Premier before it was committed to the press. In his conversations with Mr. Plowden, the Minister explicitly stated that he owed his high station to his opposition to Catholic Emancipation; and he positively told him that it was a point from which he never would be moved. The dialogue at one of the interviews is very important; since it shews that Mr. Addington is pledged for life with regard to some matters of great moment, and exhibits to us his views of certain characters and measures which have been much the objects of public attention. Alluding to the question of Catholic Emancipation, Mr. Addington remarked,

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'That he repented not having sooner reflected what must have been the author's sentiments upon this question, *by the resistance of which he stood in that house*, and which he should ever continue to oppose till his latest breath; and he added, that the author knowing, as he must have known, his (the Minister's) sentiments upon this subject, ought from the nature of his employment, to have paid peculiar deference to them in his History. The author admitted, that he was in part aware of his *public* opinion upon the question of *Catholic emancipation*, and being himself a Catholic, he had scrupulously refrained from making a single observation of his own upon that subject in the History; adhering to the strictest duty of the annalist in the faithful narration of what others had said and done upon it. *That*, replied Mr Addington, *might be more effectual than any thing of your own.* The author would not dissemble, that whilst he was writing, he so conceived it would be. The Minister manifested more than ordinary astonishment, apparently not unmixed with anger, when the author informed him, that he had given in a note to his History the papers put into the hands of Earl Fingall, and Dr. Troy, by Mr. Pitt, and Marquis Cornwallis, respecting their going out of office upon their inability to carry the Catholic question. The author met the rising displeasure of the Premier by submitting to him the utter impossibility of suppressing documents of such consequence, which manifested to the nation, or rather to the whole British empire (they are not slightly affected by the change) the grounds, upon which Mr. Pitt and his friends retired from office; consequently of those, upon which his successors came in. In the course of this interview Mr. Addington very distinctly, and very forcibly, thrice intimated to the author, that by his pledged resistance to this question of Catholic emancipation, he had come into and continued *in that house*. The author presuming, that his Majesty had other motives for promoting him to that important station, took the liberty of expressing his hopes, that he was not inexorable in that opposition; he replied, he was not to be moved from it.

'Another topic of conversation at this interview was far from being unimportant to the public. The primary object of the author's commission was to convert the truth of Irish history into evidence of the utility and advantages of incorporate union; it was but therefore consistent, that the historian should, as far as truth would bear him out, commend the system of Marquis Cornwallis's government of that country. The commendation of that humane, just, and firm governor became indirect censure upon the opposite system of government pursued by his immediate predecessor; and the author submitted to the Premier, that he did not conceive he could do more honour to Earl Camden, than to say of him what the Earl of Clare avowed in the Irish Lords in January 1798, that the system of coercion was extorted from him; and as it was evident that this system had diffused a wide and deep sense of soreness and disaffection throughout the country, it became the duty of the historian to remove the odium of those measures, as far as truth would allow, from the door of the British cabinet. He had therefore thrown it where it immediately rested, upon a certain triumvirate, who then monopolized the political power of

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that country. They have since been chiefly removed from it, by the hand of God or the power of the executive. The author was here sharply interrogated, whether he could for an instant presume it to have been the Minister's wish or intention, that a syllable should have dropped from the author's pen to the disparagement of the respectable names of *Clare*, *Foster*, and *Beresford*. He scouted the idea of any difference of principle or system in the two governments of Earl Camden and Marquis Cornwallis. It was an identity of spirit and principle applicable to the varying circumstances, of a rising, raging, and expiring rebellion. Mr. Addington very significantly assured the author, that he knew not the grounds, views, or motives, of Lord Cornwallis's actions. This the author admitted the possibility of; he could not however presume, that in so manly, humane, just, and noble a character, there lurked in the back ground any views or motives impervious to the observation of every candid by stander; and he asserted with more than ordinary firmness, that he had notwithstanding, reason for insisting, that his Lordship's *sentiments with regard to Ireland were well known by the measures he pursued and those which he recommended**.'

In the controversy which sprung from another treaty of the late Premier, most men were agreed that the case which he made out was very lame, though many were of opinion that he did not want materials to furnish one which would have been above all exceptions; and on the statements of the parties, there were not a few who thought that the judgment must go against the Minister of Great Britain, whatever the result might have been on a full sifting of all the matters in dispute. The circumstances are very much the same in the negociation of which an account is here given. The Minister admits his own want of foresight, and seems to have entertained unreasonable expectations of conformity to his views on the part of Mr. Plowden. This appears when he reproaches the author for favouring the Catholic claims; when he blames him for disparaging "the respectable names of Clare, Foster, and Beresford;" and when he upbraids him for distinguishing between two late Irish administrations, and for unreasonably extolling one of them. To all this, Mr. Plowden replies that he had violated no express stipulation; that an engagement by an honourable person to write a history is an engagement to write a *true* one; that to expect a man to oppose the just rights of the members of his own communion, is to suppose him to be the lowest and basest of mankind; that to imagine that, in opposition to facts, he will extol characters and pass over delinquencies, or that he will impugn councils and measures that

'* The author had at that time in his pocket a letter from the Marquis, containing those words, which however he did not shew to the Minister.'

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are admired for their wisdom and benevolence, is to consider him as indifferent to truth and falsehood, careless of right and wrong, destitute of every feeling of honour, insensible to the odium in which the falsifier of history is held, and regardless of the oblivion into which disingenuous narratives are sure very speedily to fall. Of this kind are the answers which the remonstrances of the Minister call forth; and there are few, we apprehend, who will not range on the side of the defence. If Mr. Addington wished Mr. Plowden to act the part of Zucceius, he ought, like the Roman Orator, to have given him explicit instructions. In regard to one of the Minister's observations, may it not be asked, Was there ever a man in Ireland of either party, that did not regard the two governments which immediately preceded the union as not less distinguishable than light and darkness? What stranger to Irish passions has not had his feelings shocked by invectives against the "misplaced and ill-judged clemency" of a Cornwallis? Have we not read and heard enough of tortures preceding the rebellion, and of most inhuman excesses succeeding it, before the arrival of that noble person, and even after it; he being unable at once to establish the mild system which did so much credit to his wisdom, to his magnanimity, and to his humanity? We would as soon believe with Mr. Plowden all the tenets of the Catholic church, as subscribe to Mr. Addington's doctrine of the identity of spirit and principles of the Camden and Cornwallis administrations.—It may be said, it does not appear that the Premier was at all adverse to the administration of Lord Cornwallis, the sound policy and enlightened humanity of which were admired by all Europe; but what is Mr. Plowden's account of the matter? He tells us that Mr. Addington *very significantly* assured the author that he knew not the grounds, views, or motives of Lord Cornwallis's actions, in a conversation which referred to the noble Lord's government of Ireland. Can any one doubt that disapprobation, even dropping the *very significantly* of the narrator, is here clearly intimated by the Minister?—We do not think that Mr. Addington appears to more advantage in this petty *fracas*, than he did in another and greater rupture to which he was accessory. We are indeed convinced that, however pacific may be his temper, and however well disposed his turn of mind, he is deficient in some of the most essential qualifications of a negociator.

If, however, we cannot sympathize with the complaints of Mr. Addington, nor impute as offences to Mr. Plowden the countenance which he gives to Catholic Emancipation, the free manner in which he treats certain public characters, the praise which he bestows on the Cornwallis government, and

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the blame which he ascribes to others that preceded it, yet we are far from asserting that the manner in which he has executed his task is unexceptionable. Had he never deviated from the track of an impartial narrator, we should have deemed him intitled to high commendation: but if he could descend from this lofty and proud ground to occupy that of an advocate, we cannot help thinking that, in that character, he was required to consult the inclinations, interests, and predilections of the clients who had retained him, whatever might have been his own partialities. Had the sacredness of truth prevented him from doing this, we should have applauded his elevation of mind and his integrity: but the matter does not stand thus, for if he be not the advocate of Great Britain and of the Minister, it is impossible to deny that he is the open apologist and zealous partizan of Irish and Catholic prejudices. In the early part of his work, he adopts the fabulous tales of antient Hibernia, and sanctions their currency in a manner that obliges us to impute to him a blind credulity, if we acquit him of gross disingenuousness. He decides on dubious points on very scanty evidence; he makes representations which are contradictory to facts related by himself; and he occasionally adopts a style which cannot be pleasing to the bulk of his readers: while his principles also (we believe, without his being conscious of it,) are made to shift as the exigency of the case requires. When stating the conversion of the Irish by St. Patrick, why was it necessary to declare that the religion which he taught was that which is professed by the Catholics at this day; and that it was also the genuine religion of Christ? Let all this have been so, why mix this dogmatism with historical narrative? not only is this unhandsome, but we do not hesitate to say that it is unfair towards his Protestant employers. The facts, however, are far from being such as he states them to be. No one conversant with ecclesiastical history will deny that the constitution of the Roman hierarchy has been materially changed since the days of St. Patrick, and that some important articles of the Romish creed have received ecumenical sanction since that period. Then what a *petitio principii* is the proposition, that the religion of Rome, in the time of Pope Celestine, was the same with that which was taught by Christ and his apostles? —We shall substantiate our other charges as the occasions present themselves in our survey of the work.

Mr. O'Halloran had so thoroughly fatigued us with empty accounts of Milesian kings *, that we were not a little terrified to meet with them again in the early pages of this voluminous

* See Review for January last, p. 75.

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history: but, thanks to Mr. Plowden, though he is very respectful to these royal shades, he does not long detain them. He sanctions, however, all the tales of credulous antiquaries with respect to the profound policy, the wise administration, and the flourishing state of commerce, arts, and sciences, under the descendants of Milesius. His motive for entering on this remote chapter of Irish history is stated to be, a desire to convince Britons that the nation with which they have coalesced is worthy of the alliance. Laying the premises out of our consideration, we can assure Mr. P. that we as fully admit his conclusion as he does himself. Without faith in the reign of Milesius,—with no belief in the partition of Ireland by his three sons Heber, Eremon, and Ith,—questioning the existence of the Triennial Parliaments of Tarah,—regarding as fabulous the marvellous reign of Ollamh Fodhla, and the other tales so reverentially mentioned by Mr. P.,—we are not less convinced than he is of the excellent qualities of our neighbours, and of their fitness in every respect to enter into the close relation which now binds them to the inhabitants of this island.

In the author's review of what we consider as the authentic history of Ireland, the very able speech of Lord Clare on the union seems to have been his guide; and certainly a better general chart, in his long and tedious voyage, is hardly to be obtained: if we except, indeed, the part of it which relates to very recent times, and by which it must be owned Mr. Plowden is duly anxious not to be misled.

The succeeding brief passage shews the relation in which the two countries stood to one another, previously to the reign of Elizabeth:

'Notwithstanding the nominal or pretended conquest of the whole kingdom of Ireland by Henry II. and the grant and confirmation thereof by the Popes Adrian and Alexander, the truth is, that the English power and authority during the reign of Henry II. was confined (and it so continued for above 400 years) to a certain district afterwards called the *Pale*. This comprized the counties of Dublin, Kildare, Meath, and Uriel, with the cities of Waterford, Cork, and Limerick, and the lands immediately surrounding them. Over the other parts of the kingdom, which were without the Pale, neither Henry II. nor any of his successors, until the reign of James I, either had or even pretended to claim more than a naked sovereignty, marked by nothing else than a formal homage, an inconsiderable tribute and an empty title.'

Mr. Plowden's view of the conduct of Elizabeth, and of her predecessors, strongly points out its ill policy, and the mischiefs which were the consequences of it. The maxims on

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which Britain acted were narrow, ill judged, and oppressive; and unhappily the like description is applicable to the behaviour of this country, up to the period of carrying the measure, of which Mr. Plowden is the advocate and panegyrist.

When we come to the reign of James I., Mr. P. represents the introduction of new inhabitants into Ulster, which had been depopulated during the war of Elizabeth, in a manner of which we think not only his employers have a right to complain, but which all impartial men must disapprove, and every good subject must condemn. Considering the matter on a large scale, we cannot for a moment doubt that it was salutary to Ireland. To plant by the side of an inactive untutored people, a class of industrious and civilized individuals, we conceive to have been a measure highly calculated to accelerate the improvement of the country. It would no doubt awaken temporary jealousies, but it has been the fault of subsequent governments that these have not been long extinguished, and that the arrangement is not known at this day solely by its vast advantages to the sister island. We are far from denying that Great Britain has been guilty of much injustice in its treatment of Ireland: but still, if the connection has proved less beneficial than it might have been, has not this been owing to the ignorance of the times, to the misrepresentations of a few interested base men, Irish as well as English, and to the unhappy differences in regard to religion? Has not Ireland shared in the distinctions and renown of the first people in the world;—have not her sons been allowed to give lustre to our senate, dignity to our church, and most materially to add to the fame of our arms for gallantry and heroism? Would our fellow subjects have been better circumstanced, had they fallen into the hands of France, or of Spain? While we fairly confess the injuries which we have heretofore done to the sister-country, (more through ignorance than wilfulness,) let it not be denied us to call to recollection the advantages of which the connection has been productive; since also we have every reason to hope that future history will have only benefits to record. The good effects of the intercourse are reciprocal; and enlightened Britons will feel no disposition to disparage them, but every inclination cheerfully to acknowlege and magnify them. To say nothing of the countenance and other more solid favours of the government which the author enjoyed, we think that this is the view of things which, as a British subject, and a friend of both countries, he ought to have taken: a view in which Britain would have stood in a fairer light in his pages. We fully acquit him of the most remote intention to create ill blood, or to keep up a coolness between the two

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people; and if this be occasionally the effect of his narrative, we are persuaded that it was not perceived by him, but arose out of the zeal for his communion, which never deserts him: for if he disdains to be the advocate of Ministers, and of his country, he most assuredly is, on all occasions, the invariable apologist of the religious body to which he belongs.

The zeal and predilection, to which we have now alluded, are eminently visible in Mr. P.'s manner of treating the events which have been called the Popish Massacre, and the grand Irish rebellion: indeed these topics have carried him lengths of which we are confident he is not himself aware. Is it for any man at this day to attempt to palliate or extenuate the dreadful manner in which that insurrection commenced? 'I wish,' says he, 'to draw an impervious veil over every scene of blood and horror which defiled the actors, as well as over the imaginary fictions and exaggerations which have disgraced most of our historical relations of these transactions.' What! are the actual butcheries to be placed on a level with the exaggerations which are inevitable on such occasions? Whence has an historian his licence to pass over transactions which shock the feelings of the humane? It is his most bounden duty to set them forth in all their magnitude, and in their true colour; to assign the causes from which they originated, to record the designs which they were intended to promote, and to exhibit the passions, sentiments, and habits, which rendered human beings capable of bearing a part in so horrible a drama. Such events are replete with lessons of instruction; and to inculcate them is eminently the province of a work like the present, which, by its very title, claims a relaxation from the severity of history. It would, we think, have well become a Catholic, substantially countenanced in his labours by a Protestant government, to have entered into a minute detail of these enormities. Let him, if he pleased, have exposed the errors, oppressions, and persecutions which drew on the sufferers a vengeance so disproportionate: but let him also have anatomized the foul passions which set in motion the fiends of destruction; let him ascribe to national hate, to bigotry, to savage manners, and to real grievances, each its proper share in bringing on this dreadful storm; and let him have calculated the degree in which each of these causes operated! He might have taken occasion to shew that, though intolerance was for centuries the avowed tenet of the see of Rome, the constant theme of its schools, and the practice of its most eminent and even canonized disciples; though its communion has been stained by crusades, massacres, and endless bloodshed; yet that this sanguinary policy is not essential to the catholic hierarchy,

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and has no necessary connection with the spiritual authority claimed by the Pope, nor with the doctrines, institutions, and rites of that church. This would have been a fit occasion for exposing the mischief of intolerance and persecution; and for exhorting the prelates and clergy of his communion, to eradicate from their flocks every relic of this infernal temper. Recent experience proves that such hints and exhortations would not have been unseasonable.—If we are friends to a liberal and enlarged policy in government, and if we recommend it to our rulers to admit our catholic brethren to a participation of all civil and political rights, we not less inculcate it on the enlightened professors of that religion to banish from among them the spirit of persecution, and every species of intolerance. We should be glad to learn that the Romish pastors were sedulous and active in exhorting their people to cherish sentiments of christian charity and forbearance. Without making religion chargeable with the late rebellion, it is not too much to say that the savage and murderous bigotry displayed in the course of it implicates the Romish priests in a very blameable remissness with regard to this part of their duty.

It is with concern that we find this author making every effort to represent a confederacy which had an origin so foul as that of the conspirators of 1641, and which was stained with the blood of the weak and defenceless, as taking up arms in the cause of royalty. We hardly know how to account for his assigning a subsequent pretence of the insurgents, as the original motive of the insurrection. Had he displayed industry and acuteness in reducing the facts to their proper size,—had he drawn the line between truth and exaggeration,—and had he, while he related the dreadful vengeance, ascertained the degree of the provocation,—we should have cheerfully acknowleged the obligations under which he had laid the public: but he found it to be a more easy task to display the zeal of a partisan, to practise the arts of a sophist, to jumble facts and conjectures together, without regard to time and place, and to perplex us by the confusion of his narrative.

The flippant remarks of Mr. Plowden on the conduct of Charles II., at his restoration, betray either ignorance scarcely credible, or invincible prejudice. Not to lay stress on the reason given by Lord Clare for the protection extended to Cromwell's soldiers, it is well known that indulgence and favour to the opponents of his family were, in his situation, less matters of choice than of necessity. It was to them that he owed the recovery of his crown; and his ability to retain it is problematical, had he not secured them in their possessions.

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In this part of his work, Mr. Plowden disgusts his readers by the constant recurrence and unwarrantable use of the terms rebels and regicides. He cannot be ignorant that the latter title is no more applicable to those wise and patriotic individuals who began the opposition to Charles I., than it is to the historian himself; and he ought to know that the leading characters, and the great bulk of the people of this country, do not designate the same parties as rebels,—that they do not brand with infamy their opposition to the measures of a weak and arbitrary court;—and that however they may lament the fatal issue of the contest, they are not accustomed to speak in opprobrious language of those who sealed with their blood their attachment to the privileges and rights of Britons. The term regicides belongs only to Cromwell and his officers and creatures; it is a most gross calumny to apply it to the first opponents of Charles, or to the Presbyterians who next obtained the ascendancy; and it can properly be fixed on a very small party, who had the address ultimately to get the army into their management. It is a species of infatuation to represent, as this author does, the Irish insurgents of 1641 as meritorious persons; and to describe as rebels and traitors all those who stood up for their liberties and constitutional rights, in opposition to the tyrannical ministers and iniquitous tribunals of Charles I. This practice will not recommend either the writer or his cause to those persons whom, on other occasions, he extols, and whose good opinion he appears to desire.

Mr. Plowden by no means states the matter fairly with regard to Ireland under James II.: but our limits will not allow us to animadvert on his representation of facts, nor on his conclusions. The circumstances of that country, at that time, however, sufficiently shew the imperfect nature of the connection between the two kingdoms, and speak strongly in favour of some such measure as that which has been lately adopted.

We now come to the Revolution; from which period, Mr. Plowden, assuming more just principles, and following more able guides, presents undeniable claims to attention. Though he is not happy in method, and has done little towards digesting his matter, still the view which he gives of his subject is correct, and his account of the several Irish governments is for the most part satisfactory. He also very properly inveighs against the violation of the articles of Limerick.

The author next adverts to the spirit of independence which manifested itself in the Parliament of Ireland at an early period. He takes notice of the high-toned reprehension of the Lord Lieutenant on the occasion, and descants on the work of Mr. Molyneux,

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Molyneux, and the resentment which it excited in the British House of Commons.

Mr. Plowden justly remarks that the intolerance towards catholics, which takes its date from the reign of William, is by no means to be laid to the charge of that prince, but to the jealousy of the Irish Protestants, and to the party in England which thwarted that monarch's views in so many other instances.

Much praise is here bestowed on the catholics for their loyal and dutiful behaviour, from the period of the revolution. We feel no desire to depreciate the claims of that body: but it seems probable that this conduct was more the effect of necessity than of election. Their ready submission to the tyrannical laws in restraint of their rights, since that time, shews that they were without credit, influence, and power; and that they were convinced, whatever their inclinations may have been, that every struggle on their part would only serve to deteriorate their already dismal situation. That they had contracted an antipathy towards the Stuarts would have been in no degree strange: but that they should feel much affection, previously to the present reign, towards the family on the throne, would indeed be surprizing; since, however auspicious its accession proved to its protestant subjects, it had only been known to the catholics by an accumulation of harsh and galling restrictions.

Mr. Plowden shews that the grievous disturbances occasioned by the White Boys arose out of distress and oppression, and had no relation either to religion or politics. This also is admitted by Lord Clare. The conduct of certain protestants on the occasion is to the last degree base and detestable: since in order to render the catholics obnoxious, they were accused of prostituting the forms of law for the purpose of shedding innocent blood; and it is impossible to read the account given by Mr. P., of the proceedings instituted against Sheehy and Keating, without feelings of extreme horror and disgust. The Irish Parliament is at the same time charged with refusing to investigate the causes of popular discontents, with the view of converting them into engines of state intrigue. In such circumstances, what a blessing must an union be?

The first attempt to break the boundaries of the dire penal code against catholics was made when a bill was brought into Parliament in 1764, to enable the members of that body to take real securities for money: but it miscarried, there being against the measure a considerable majority.

In an extract made by the author from a cotemporary writer, Dr. Campbell, we have this statement of the mode of governing at that time in the sister island; "In

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"In this nation are three or four grandees, who have such an influence in the House of Commons, that their coalition would, at any time, give them a clear majority upon any question. It has, therefore, always been a maxim of government to disunite these factious chiefs. And, still further to disable opposition, it has been thought expedient to disengage, as much as possible, the followers from their leaders. This was attempted by Lord Chesterfield, so early as the year 1745, but his stay was too short to effect it.

"Formerly, these principals used to stipulate with each new lord lieutenant whose office was biennial, and residence but for six months, upon what terms they would carry the king's business through the houses; so that they might, not improperly, be called undertakers. They provided, that the disposal of all court favours, whether places, pensions, or preferments, should pass through their hands, in order to keep their suite in an absolute state of dependence upon themselves. All applications were made by the leader, who claimed, as a right, the privilege of gratifying his friends in proportion to their numbers.

"Whenever such demands were not complied with, then the measures of government were sure to be crossed and obstructed; and the session of parliament became a constant struggle for power, between the heads of parties, who used to force themselves into the office of lord justice, according to the prevalence of their interest."

From an address moved in Parliament to be presented to His Majesty, we extract an account of the administration of justice in Ireland. It states

"That one principal source of these evils consisted in the appointing persons of mean abilities, and totally unacquainted with the state and municipal constitution of Ireland, to the ministration of justice in the supreme courts of law in that kingdom; by the means of which, all law suits were protracted to an excessive length, and the expences of them were rendered intolerable, the security of persons, of life, and of property, were daily diminished and made more precarious; the laws, instead of being considered as the protection, were become the oppression of the people, and in the place of being obeyed and loved, appeared too often contemptible or disgusting from the incapacity, which sometimes was found in those, who were entrusted with the execution of them."

The author thus depicts an administration which forms a sort of epoch in the history of his country:

'The old lords justices filled their stations for the last time until the appointment of Lord Townsend to be lord lieutenant on the 14th of October, 1767.

'This nobleman was selected to introduce a very important change in the system of governing Ireland. The choice was in many points judicious. In order to attempt the arduous task of supplanting the deep-rooted influence of the Irish oligarchy, it was requisite, that the lord lieutenant, to whom that power was to be transferred, should be endowed with those qualities, that were most likely to ingratiate him with the Irish nation. The new lord lieutenant excelled all his predecessors

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decessors in that convivial ease, pleasantry, and humour, so highly prized by the Irish of every description. The majority, which had been so dearly bought in the commons, by those who had heretofore had the management of the *English interest*, was now found not altogether so tractable, as it had heretofore been. There were three or four grandees, as Dr. Campbell observed, who had such an influence in the House of Commons, that their coalition would, at any time, give them a clear majority upon any question. To gain these had been the chief anxiety of former governors: they were sure to bring over a proportionate number of dependants, and it had been the unguarded maxim to permit subordinate graces and favours to flow from or through the hands of these leaders, whom experience now shewed to be as irritable and versatile as the most insignificant of their followers. Formerly these principals used to stipulate with each new lord lieutenant, whose office was biennial and residence but for six months, upon what terms, they would carry the king's business through the House: so that they might not improperly be called *undertakers*. They provided, that the disposal of all court favors, whether places, pensions, or preferments, should pass through their hands, in order to keep their suite in an absolute state of dependance upon themselves. All applications were made by the leader, who claimed as a right the privilege of gratifying his friends in proportion to their numbers. Whenever such demands were not complied with, then were the measures of government sure to be crossed and obstructed: and the session of parliament became a constant struggle for power between the heads of parties, who used to force themselves into the office of lord justice according to the prevalence of their interest. This evil had been seen and lamented by Lord Chesterfield: and his resolution and preparatory steps for undermining it probably contributed not a little to his immediate recal upon the cessation of the danger, which his wisdom was thought alone competent to avert.

'This was the system, which Lord Clare said *the government of England at length opened their eyes to the defects and dangers of: they shook the power of the aristocracy, but were unable to break it down.* The monopoly of civil power long survived the administration of Lord Townsend: no small share of it rested with that noble earl, who thus faithfully describing it, practically knew the inability of the English government to break it down. The primary object of Lord Townsend's administration was to break up the monopolizing system of this oligarchy. He in part succeeded, but by means ruinous to the country. The subalterns were not to be detached from their chiefs, but by similar though more powerful means, than those, by which they had enlisted under their banners. The streams of favor became not only multiplied, but enlarged, consequently the source of remuneration the sooner exhausted. Every individual now looked up directly to the fountain head, and claimed and received more copious draughts. Thus, under colour of destroying an overgrown aristocratic power, all parliamentary independance was completely secured by government. The innovation naturally provoked the deserted few to resentment: but they were bereft of their consequence when left to their individual exertions.

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exertions *. They took refuge under the shelter of patriotism, and they inveighed with less effect against the venality of the system, merely because it had taken a new direction, and was somewhat enlarged. The bulk of the nation, and some, though very few of their representatives in parliament, were earnest, firm, and implacable against it.

'The arduous task which Lord Townsend had assumed was not to be effected by a coup de main: forces so engaged, so marshalled, and so commanding rather than commanded, as he found the Irish parliament, were not to be dislodged by a sudden charge: regular, gradual, and cautious approaches were to be made: it was requisite, that the chief governor should first be popular, and then powerful, before he could be efficient and successful. His lordship, therefore, to those convivial fascinations, to which the Irish are supereminently sensible, superadded as many personal favors, as the fiscal stores could even promise to answer, which in a people of quick and warm sensibility creates a something very like momentary gratitude; and in order the more completely to seat himself in that effective power, which was requisite for his purpose, he judiciously fixed upon a favorite object of the wishes and attempts of the patriots to sanction with his countenance and support.'

It was under the same government that Ireland obtained regular periodical parliaments:

'The patriots had long and loudly complained, that although in early times the parliament of Ireland continued but for the year or session, and then the popular representatives having discharged the duties required of them for that period, resigned their delegated authority and powers into the hands of those, from whom they had received them, to be again at their free option and disposal: yet in latter times their parliaments were prolonged from the beginning of each reign to the demise of the sovereign, unless he chose by an extraordinary exertion of prerogative to put an earlier period to their existence by dissolution. This they considered as a flagrant violation of the rights of the people: as from them, the representatives derived their political character, its continuance ought to be commensurate with the will of the people, not that of the crown: from the moment their power exceeded their delegation, it was usurpation: the nation might in that case number several self-created law-givers, not one representative. A national evil, which called loudly for redress. Under this baneful system, from the moment of their election, the commons became almost wholly independent of the people; and under the refined improvements of Sir Robert Walpole, in the manage-

* 'Under various pretences, these gentlemen endeavoured to spirit up the people to adopt their resentments, and they affected to take refuge in the arms of patriotism. The contest produced a series of political letters, replete with wit and humour, inferior perhaps to nothing of the kind except the letters of Junius. They have been since published in an octavo volume, under the title of *Baratariana. Phil. Surv. p.* 59.'

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ment of parliamentary interest, the seduction became too powerful for most men, when they were at liberty to treat for life. The patriots anticipated the cure of venality in the frequency of their parliaments, the people hailed the welcome return of their power and controul over their representatives, and government sensibly felt, that they could not longer with-hold from Ireland what England had so long and so reasonably enjoyed. Dr. Lucas had several times failed in his endeavours to procure a bill for limiting the duration of parliament. Now however a septennial bill was transmitted, and was returned with an alteration in point of time, having been changed into an octennial one. There appears to have been some unfair manœuvring in the British cabinet, in order by a side-wind to deprive the Irish of that, which they dared not openly refuse them. At the same time a transmiss was made of another popular bill for the independence of the judges, in which they had also inserted some alteration. It was expected that the violent tenaciousness of the Irish commons for the privilege of not having their heads of bills altered on this side of the water, would have induced them to reject any bill, into which such an alteration had been introduced. In this the English cabinet was deceived: the Irish commons waved the objection as to the limitation bill, in order to make sure at last of what they had so long tried in vain to procure, and considered that they surrendered no part of their privilege by objecting on this very account to the judges bill, which was transmitted at the same time with alterations: for although this latter bill had been particularly recommended in the speech of the lord lieutenant, it was on account of an alteration inserted in it in England, upon the report of the committee appointed to compare the bill with the heads of the bill, unanimously rejected.'

Mr. P. thus speaks of Poyning's law, and of the inconveniences which attended it:

'By Poyning's law, all bills must originate in the Irish privy council, and receive the assent of the king and council in England, previous to their being presented to the legislative bodies of the Irish parliament; in consequence of which process, all bills that came certified from the Irish council to the king in England, were immediately on their arrival delivered to the attorney-general of England, to be perused, and settled by himself or the solicitor-general, but which in fact was generally done by some chamber council, who had leisure to attend to it. The inconveniency of this was illustrated by a bill returned to Ireland altered in 74 places, which had been successively revised by Lord Thurlow, when attorney-general, Lord Rosslyne, when solicitor-general, and the late Mr. Macnamara, a chamber council. The bill so metamorphosed was rejected by the commons of Ireland. These various corrections by an English, Scotch, and Irish lawyer, were of serious consequence to government. The temporary duties of Ireland expired in a few days after the rejection of the bill. Several weeks elapsed before a money-bill could be perfected, sent over to England, returned, and approved by the Irish commons and lords—and in the interim the merchants imported duty free.'

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It is not less singular than true, that government has scarcely ever enlarged the privileges of sectaries from magnanimity or a sense of justice; and that its concessions have always been made when its authority has been low, when it has been involved in embarrassments, and laboured under apprehensions. Thus the first considerable inroad on the penal code against Catholics was made when the country was in a state of great depression, when it had suffered vast losses from emigration, and dreaded still greater, when the war had been unfortunate, and when the ministers were most unpopular.

The origin of Defenderism, which afterward extended itself so widely, and which finally merged in the too famous Irish union, is thus described:

'In the course of the year 1788, the county of Armagh was disturbed by the increased animosity and outrages of the Peep of Day Boys, and Defenders. These two sets had been advancing in numbers, system, and ferocity, ever since the year 1785: they arose, like many other considerable and tumultuary sets or denominations of men, from mere accident. An altercation took place between two peasants who happened to be Presbyterians: amongst the spectators of the affray, was a Roman Catholic, who took a part with one of the combatants: at which the other swore perpetual vengeance: this spirit of difference was kept up, and the neighbours began to take a part with the original combatants, according to their intimacies of friendship: the spirit of discord spread from families to villages: they embodied and called themselves fleets, and went out to meet and fight each other: hitherto they knew no other difference or distinction, than that of their villages or townships; which, from their names, they called the Nappack fleet, and the Bawn fleet: a third set, living about Bunker's-hill, between Newry and Armagh, associated to defend themselves against the Nappack fleet, and calling themselves Defenders joined the Bawn fleet. Many on both sides were armed; and as far back as 1785, near a thousand men on both sides met for a regular engagement, which was fortunately prevented by some gentlemen of property, who had been apprized of their intentions. When once associations of this sort have formed themselves into bodies; it is impossible that the spirit of discord, or revenge, or even frolic, should not carry them beyond their original intentions, and lead them into new mischief, arising out of the fortuitous circumstances of their unguarded warmth. In this part of the country, the religious division of the population was different from most other districts in Ireland: the Protestants were the more numerous, and of these the greater part were Presbyterians. As the discord and animosity increased, some accidental differences about religion blew up a religious dissention amidst both parties; and, in process of time, they formed into a new division, and enlisted under the opposite banners of the Protestant and Catholic religions. Of all grounds of dissentions, religion is ever the most inveterate, and most to be dreaded. A tumultuary spirit had so long

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long pervaded these unfortunate people, that as they had once armed and arrayed themselves for combat, they would not it seems part or disarm without fighting. This new marshalling of their whole force soon gave rise to different appellations: for the Protestants, taking advantage of the laws against Papists having arms, paid their antagonists very early domiciliary visits to search for arms, in which they were often guilty of the most wanton outrages; they acquired the appellation of *Peep of Day Boys;* whilst the others assumed that of *Defenders*. The consequence of this new division of parties was, that their mutual ferocity increased, and frequent rencounters terminated in blood. Certain it is, that by timely and vigorous exertions of government, this spirit of dissention and outrage might have been at any time subdued and extinguished: but unfortunately the unhappy differences were permitted to be fomented by gentlemen of the country for electioneering or other worse purposes. Hence the fatal origin of defenderism.'

Mr. P. gives a very impartial account of the parties, and divisions of parties, which have distracted Ireland since the æra of the French Revolution. The extracts which we subjoin will shew how incurable were the religious animosities in that country:

'The passing of the act so emphatically calculated to destroy all odious distinctions between Irishmen of different religious persuasions, altered the laws, but crushed not the spirit which kept them up. Great difficulties at first prevailed in raising the different regiments of militia; for although Catholics were rendered capable of serving in them, no Catholic officers were appointed: this marked reprobation of all gentlemen of that communion so directly in teeth of the act, diffused a general diffidence amidst the lower orders, and it was found necessary to appoint several Catholic officers, before the militia corps could be completed.

'There were few or no parts of the kingdom, in which attempts were not made by a certain party to traduce and vilify the Catholics, in order to defeat that confidence and consequence, which the patronizing countenance of their sovereign had given them throughout the nation. Not only the exclusive distinctions were publicly kept up in corporations, but anonymous charges and slanders were published and circulated with all the industry of envenomed acrimony. The Catholics published protestations against these anonymous attacks, with fresh resolutions and avowals of their loyalty and affection to the king and constitution. The growth and progress of defenderism, particularly in the county of Meath, afforded fuel to the enemies of the Catholic body, which they studied to implicate in the crimes of those furious miscreants. Painful industry was employed to work up the imaginations of the inhabitants into the expectation of a general massacre of all the Protestants throughout that county. No arts were left untried to criminate the Catholic body: every exceptionable word or action of an individual, however contemptible, was charged on the entire body; and the object was now, not so much to suppress the Defenders, as to fasten their enormities on the Catholic body.'—

'Mr.

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'Mr. Foster openly professed himself at all times an enemy to all Catholic indulgence, and was prominently active in his zeal against them. The Earl of Bective's natural mildness prevented him from opposing the new born influence in the county of Meath, which Mr. Foster assumed on this, for the first occasion, from the overflowing of his zeal against Popery. One of the members of the sub-committee was a Catholic, and this right honorable gentleman undertook to new-model it by excluding from it every member that was not a magistrate. After these exertions at Navan, he went to Ardbraccan, and thence returned to Navan, of which he seemed to take a survey. Strange rumours were immediately circulated, that the dark business of defenderism was traced to its source, and that the discovery would astonish the nation. On the next public market day, Mr. John Fay, a most respectable and amiable character of that town, was arrested in the open street: bail was refused, and he was ignominiously hurried under a military escort to the county gaol. He was charged with having conspired against the life of Mr. Butler. The town of Navan was chiefly inhabited by Catholics, and had lately been most grossly traduced; it had been termed a sink of iniquity, and the judges, in their way from Trim to the county of Louth, had been warned, as they tendered their personal safety, not to pass through the town of Navan. The imprisonment of Mr Fay gave rise to serious apprehensions on one part of a general proscription of the Catholics, and on the other to the belief of a Popish conspiracy to massacre all the Protestants. Thus were the feelings of the whole district made the sport of the wicked, who were attempting to play the basest game under these fictitious plots.

'There evidently was a deep plot laid by persons of political influence in the country to criminate Mr. Fay, and several other respectable persons of his persuasion as aiders and abettors of treason, murder, and every outrage, that can disturb society and dissolve civil government: the immediate object of which was to stigmatize the body of Roman Catholics. But justice providentially prevailed, and opened to view the base machinations and perjuries of the wretched informer Lynch, and other miscreants, raked out of the neighbouring gaols, who had been hired and suborned to swear away the lives of innocent and meritorious men. The honorable acquittal of Mr. Fay, and the public exposure of the attempts of the junto, to criminate by the like means, Mr. Dowdal of Clown, Mr. Bird of Drogheda, and some other Catholic gentlemen of the first commercial consequence, upon whom the most ferocious severity had been exercised whilst under the control of the magistrates, cast such disgrace and infamy upon the perpetrators of this dark conspiracy, that for a time the Catholics were no longer molested by this species of persecution. The Catholics in these parts of the country most infested by the defenders, had from their numbers suffered more from those depredators than the Protestants, and although it evidently were a plebeian league against property, yet it is to be remarked, that in every assize for the county of Meath since the defenders first appeared there, no Roman Catholic was admitted on juries on the crown side, although formerly those juries had generally consisted of Catholics. The malice, prejudice, falsehood, and infamy,

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that appeared at the assizes at Trim upon the trial of Mr. Fay, were too rank for the most sanguinary bigot. The judge was shocked: every honest man cried shame: the junto were confounded at the failure of their own schemes.'

The laws were farther relaxed in favour of the Catholics in 1793; which measure is, apparently on good grounds, ascribed to the influence which Mr. Burke then possessed over the British cabinet. That the concession was by no means agreeable to the party, which has since assumed the appellation of *Orange*, is most evident from the insolent tone of the reply of Lord Clare to the truly liberal and christian speech of the Bishop of Killala (Law); who was at the same time reprehended by his Grace of Cashel, now of Dublin.

It appears to be very important towards a right understanding of the history of Ireland at a recent period, that we should be apprized of the successive variations in the sentiments of the society of the Irish union, as well as of the dates of those changes. We could have wished, therefore, that this matter had been somewhat more laboured by the present author.

The sudden favourable turn in Irish affairs on the arrival of Lord Fitzwilliam at Dublin, the dreadful consequences which ensued on his recall, and the issue between him and the ministers of that day, are too well known to our readers to require any observations from us on that portion of the work which narrates them.

In his account of the late horrible disturbances, Mr. Plowden displays in general great fairness and impartiality; principally following Messrs. Gordon and Hay, and the admirable narrative of the Bishop of Killala. He takes also several opportunities of pointing out the mis-statements in Sir Richard Musgrave's memoirs, which are too numerous to allow any person to suppose that they were involuntary: but we are persuaded that Mr. P.'s fears respecting the mischief to be dreaded from that work are, in a great degree, groundless; since we cannot believe that it will mislead any except those who have a desire to be deceived. In Ireland, it may have too successfully attained its object: but it never possessed any credit in this country, and was, we believe, very little read in it, and still less regarded.

The proceedings relative to the Union are also so recent, that we shall make no comment on the detail of the events which ended in the consummation of that great measure; which on all occasions has called forth our commendation, and which, in our humble judgment, if duly followed up, would be productive of the greatest benefits to both countries. As it respects Ireland, we never entertained doubts in regard to its eligibility; as it affects Great Britain, it is impossible not to

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feel serious apprehensions concerning its result on the whole. It had a most important influence on the deliberations of Parliament in a very late instance: since it was to the accession of members in consequence of the union, that the present ministers were indebted for the retention of their situation; and it is in this view of it that the words of Montesquieu become applicable: *Ce qu'on appelle union, dans un corps politique, est une chose très équivoque* *.

That reader must be fastidious, who will not feel grateful to Mr. Plowden for his account of the course of the Irish government from the revolution to our own times; and for his able statement of the origin, rise, and progress of an Irish interest struggling with the English, and which triumphed over it in 1802. We give him much credit for the judicious manner in which he ascertains the services rendered to Ireland by Swift; as well as for his happy and lucid sketches of the short-lived administration of Lord Chesterfield, and of the systems of intrigue and corruption which were pursued by the Primates Boulter and Stone.

We lament, however, that, in order to secure to the work a more extensive utility, the author was not more concise in the part which preceded the revolution; and that he did not more compress his matter throughout. He ought either to have rendered his collection of state papers complete, or to have made it far more select; he ought only in very particular cases to have published the debates at length; and in general he should have been contented with giving the substance of the arguments used in the course of them. The history would then have been diminished to a fourth of its present bulk, which would have increased the circulation in a ratio greatly exceeding that of the reduction of the size; and it would in that case have secured general attention, while now it will be consulted only by the laborious few, and by persons directly interested in the subject.

Since the above article has been composed, the legislature has formed a decision on the petition of the respectable and powerful body, of which so much is said in these volumes. The opinion which we have professed, with respect to the claims which have been rejected, remains unaltered; and though the event has in this instance proved unfavourable to the reasonable expectations of the Catholics, we can discover in it nothing that should damp the hope of better success on a future occasion.

* *De la Grand. des Rom. & de leur Decad.* c. ix.

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ART. VII. *Hints towards forming the Character of a Young Princess.* Crown 8vo. 2 Vols. pp. 330, and 403. 12s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1805.

RUMOUR ascribes these volumes to a literary lady of celebrity (Mrs. Hannah More), and internal evidence inclines us to credit the assertion. The achievement here attempted is indeed arduous, and one in which it would not be wholly inglorious to succumb; since the work undertakes to prescribe the studies and relaxations, the sentiments and the habits, which shall best form the mind and model the conduct of a young personage born to the highest destinies. For the enterprising heroine who has volunteered this bold undertaking, we can safely say that, if she be chargeable with omissions, she steers for the most part clear of errors; and that she neither inculcates any maxims, nor enjoins any rule of action, which wisdom and virtue do not sanction. It is impossible not to respect the views and applaud the intentions of the fair monitor. If her genius less transcends, and if she commands not the same extent of knowlege, she writes in the spirit at least of Fenelon, and has in view the same benevolent design: for the aim of her labours is to form a patriot Princess, whom she exhorts to found her glory and her greatness on the happiness and love of her subjects.

Deeply impressed with the excellence of our institutions, the writer would have the royal pupil inspired with the like feelings, and taught to cherish free maxims of government, with a liberal and tolerant spirit of religion. The prudential part of the work is on the whole highly commendable; and if it wants novelty, (as it unavoidably must,) it is not deficient in interest, and forms a portion of the volumes not the least meriting attention from the preceptors of the illustrious infant.

Sound directions are given in the following passage, for the exercise of the most important functions of a sovereign:

'Let her ever bear in mind (that) she *is not to study that she become learned, but that she may become wise.* It is by such an acquisition of knowledge as is here recommended, that her mind must be so enlarged and invigorated as to prepare her for following wise counsels, without blindly yielding to fortuitous suggestions; as to enable her to trace actions into their multifarious consequences, and to discover real analogies without being deceived by superficial appearances of resemblance. It is thus that she must be secured from the dominion of the less enlightened. This will preserve her from credulity; prevent her from over-rating inferior talents, and help her to attain that *nil admirari*, which is so necessary for distinguishing arrogant pretension from substantial merit. It will aid her to appreciate the value of those around her; will assist her penetration in what regards her friends;

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And Odin's pile, funereal tower:
Or led in gentler hour my feet,
Where Wye's romantic waters roll,
And hapless Emma, sadly sweet,
Repentant pours her tender soul.

'Harcourt, accept the humble lays:
The Muse bestows no vulgar praise:
She gave th' Augustan times to fame;
To Louis, long her favourer, true,
When glory faithless from him flew,
Her grateful voice preserv'd his name.
She too, thy ancient house to grace,
Has tun'd from age to age her lay.
Immortal, like herself, the race
Renown'd by Pope, and lov'd by Gay.'

Besides these complimentary verses, the first volume contains two Tragedies, intitled *Odin* and *Emma*; which the author, in an evil hour, modelled on the scheme of the Grecian drama. The first, intended as an imitation of the manner of Æschylus, strikes us as the least exceptionable: but, as an imitation, it is deficient in fire, energy, and interest. These important wants we by no means ascribe to the 'severe simplicity of the fable;' for a very simple story may be very deeply affecting;—nor to the romantic and even supernatural cast of the actions, the characters, the sentiments, and the imagery; for these are circumstances which usually enhance the merits of elegant fiction:—we attribute them entirely to the improper choice and the unskilful management of the subject.

'At the close of the long war which the Romans waged against Mithridates, that unfortunate Monarch fled for succour to the rude nations, which inhabited the country lying between the Caspian and the Euxine Seas. The Asæ, over whom Odin reigned, formed one of those nations. Pompey, the Roman general, pursued Mithridates, and vanquished the several tribes, through which he passed. Odin, unable to resist his arms, is supposed to have retired with his Asæ into the North, and there to have founded some of the present kingdoms of Europe. The actions immediately preceding his final departure form the subject of the following Drama.'

The discomfiture of a horde of mountaineers, whose history is dark and remote, and who are *supposed* to have retreated to Scandinavia, is little calculated to rouze the feelings, or to take a strong hold of the sympathies of modern readers. In the pathetic regrets which are expressed for Balder, the son of Odin, we can really scarcely participate, for the hero seems to be quite solicitous to breathe his last. According to the tradition of the Scalds, Balder fell by the hands of his brother Holder: but Mr. Richards dispatches him by the Roman

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sword.—The *denouement* is a catastrophe of a very uncommon description, namely, the migration of a vanquished tribe to the Hyperborean regions. As the funereal pile, on which the king and his subjects had resolved to expire, was already prepared, we feel little inclined to thank the goddess Gondula for her *chilling* interference. Neither can we much admire the taste or the sagacity of Odin; who, after his sword was enchanted, instead of immediately wielding it to the destruction of his employers, and after loud talking about the patriotic conflagration, tamely acquiesces in the northern march, on the remote prospect of tardy vengeance inflicted by his posterity on the Roman name. We may also ask with what propriety the obscure and untutored Asæ can be made the subject of a regular tragedy, conducted on the Grecian model? Can we attribute to the speakers the refined sentiments and polished language of a modern scholar, without a gross violation of probability? Or can we suppose the most cultivated among them to be competent to the high-flown lyric morality and the allegorical abstractions of the choral interludes, without betraying our ignorance of human nature? The supposed removal of the Asæ to the polar regions may, in some measure, apologize for the Gothic machinery of the fable: but this machinery should have been consistent with itself. *Odin* and *Woden* should not have been represented as distinct personages, nor Gondula as one of the destinies.

This poem, however, contains a few passages of very considerable merit. We extract one or two of the most striking:

Antistrophe.

'Beneath an oak oppress'd,
To short perturbed rest,
I sunk beneath the cold and angry sky;
Yon eagles, mid the blast,
That countless ages past,
Built on the cliffs their pathless aeries high,
Sudden from all their caverns hoar,
Rush'd with resounding pinions forth,
Scream'd as they pass'd yon mountains o'er,
And sought the dark and stormy north.
Instant the cliffs, that beetling frown,
Parted, and roll'd in ruin down;
I shriek'd, and wild with terror sprung from sleep,
Then fled, and flying, heard the falling steep.'

The rough features of a northern climate are thus portrayed:

'Far to the stormy north,
The land of winter, nurse of frost and snows;
There on the world through joyless mouths the sun
Ne'er rises, the pale moon and stars alone

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friends; preserve her from a blind prejudice in chusing them, from retaining them through fear or fondness, and from changing them through weakness or caprice. "When we are abused through specious appearances," says the judicious Hooker, "it is because reason is negligent to search out the fallacy." But, he might have added, if reason be not cultivated early, if it be not exercised constantly, it will have no eye for discernment, no heart for vigorous exertion. Specious appearances will perpetually deceive that mind which has been accustomed to acquiesce in them through ignorance, blindness, and inaction.'

A very proper example, to shew the importance of a well stored and cultivated mind, is here submitted to the consideration of the royal pupil:

'Knowledge is often the preservative of virtue; and, next to right habits of sentiment and conduct, the best human source of happiness. Could Louis the Fourteenth have *read*, probably the edict of Nantz had not been revoked. But a restless temper, and a vacant mind, unhappily lighting on absolute power, present in this monarch, a striking instance of the fatal effects of ignorance, and the calamity of a neglected education. He had a good natural understanding, loved business, and seemed to have a mind capable of comprehending it. Many of his recorded expressions are neat and elegant. But he was uninstructed upon system; Cardinal Mazarine, with a view to secure his own dominion, having withheld from him all the necessary means of education. Thus, he had received no ideas from books; he even hated in others the learning which he did not himself possess: the terms *wit* and *scholar*, were, in his mind, terms of reproach; the one as implying satire, the other pedantry. He wanted not application to public affairs; and habit had given him some experience in them. But the apathy which marked his latter years, strongly illustrated the infelicity of an unfurnished mind. This, in the tumult of his brighter days, amidst the succession of intrigues, the splendour of festivity, and the bustle of arms, was scarcely felt. But ambition and voluptuousness cannot always be gratified. Those ardent passions, which in youth were devoted to licentiousness, in the meridian of life to war, in a more advanced age to bigotry and intolerance, not only had never been directed by religion, but had never been softened by letters. After he had renounced his mistresses at home, and his unjust wars abroad, even though his mind seems to have acquired some pious tendencies, his life became a scene of such inanity and restlessness, that he was impatient at being, for a moment, left alone. He had no mental resources. The agitation of great events had subsided. From never having learned either to employ himself in reading or thinking, his life became a blank, from which he could not be relieved by the sight of his palaces, his gardens, and his aqueducts, the purchase of depopulated villages, and plundered cities.'

It is also well observed that

'While a prince is taught the use of those exterior embellishments, which, as was before observed, designate, rather than dignify his sta-

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tion; while he is led to place the just value on every appendage which may contribute to give him importance in the eyes of the multitude; who, not being just judges of what constitutes true dignity, are consequently apt to reverence the royal person exactly so far as they see outward splendour connected with it; should not a royal pupil himself be taught, instead of over-valuing that splendour, to think it an humbling, rather than an elevating consideration, that so large a part of the respect paid to him, should be owing to such extrinsic causes, to causes which make no part of himself? Let him then be taught to gratify the public with all the pomp and circumstance suitable to royalty; but let him never forget, that though his station ought always to procure for him respect, he must ever look to his own personal conduct for inspiring veneration, attachment, and affection; and ever let it be remembered, that this affection is the strongest tie of obedience: that subjects like to see their prince great, when that greatness is not produced by rendering them less; and, as the profound Selden observes, "the people will always be liberal to a prince who spares them, and a good prince will always spare a liberal people."

To the course of reading here laid down for the young Princess, as an introductory one, we have not much to object: but, when her principles become rooted, and her taste fixed, it will be proper that the leading-strings here furnished should be laid aside; that she should walk alone; and that, like her present able and ingenious preceptress, she should exercise her judgment on various performances. When treating of French authors, Voltaire is altogether proscribed by this writer; and no exception whatever is made, even in favour of Merope or Mahomet, of his matchless fugitive pieces, nor of his Essay on General History, on which Robertson has pronounced so high yet so just a panegyric. We admit the validity of this monitor's observations on the *Siècle de Louis XIV*: but so much do we differ from the conclusion here drawn, that we deem it a very proper book to be read to a young prince by a judicious preceptor, who would accompany the perusal with the necessary remarks.

The reflections of this writer on the histories of Greece and Rome, if not original, are not those of a mere copyist. The advantages of an acquaintance with the Latin language are happily and forcibly pointed out; and just observations are made on the importance of history as a study for Princes. We are of opinion that modern history best connects itself with that of France: for this kingdom was one of the first that arose out of the ruins of the Roman empire: a circumstance from which, together with its local situation and its greater or less ascendancy in Europe, it may justly claim such a distinction. By first studying attentively the history of France, the royal

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royal pupil will better understand that of her own country; and without this preliminary step she will scarcely comprehend it, much less be able to make a thorough application of its lessons. The history of the See of Rome is also, in this view, of the highest importance, since it throws light on every point of modern record, down to the æra of the reformation. No idea can be more erroneous than that which represents the annals of popes and councils as not falling within the studies of statesmen, and as claiming only the attention of divines; whereas in truth they are to the latter merely acquisitions of ornament, but are eminently adapted to prepare the former for the business of life. The ecclesiastics of the middle ages were rather statesmen and lawyers than churchmen; they were the ministers, the ambassadors, and the presidents of tribunals of those days. Consummate skill in diplomacy, high refinement in law proceedings, and a superior polish, distinguished the Court of Rome, while those of temporal princes were immersed in barbarism. The Roman Catholic church has been our preceptress in these matters; our policy, municipal and general, has been materially derived from her; and those who do not contemplate her annals, particularly while she was the paramount power in Europe, will be very imperfectly versed in modern history. It is true, however, that this study will be proper only when the faculties are perfected, and the judgment matured.—If we do not dispute the position of the writer before us, that a great and wise sovereign will disdain Machiavellian arts and intrigues, we peremptorily deny that he can with safety remain ignorant of them.

Masterly sketches of renowned princes are here submitted to the eye of the royal pupil. The likenesses do not flatter, and justice is scarcely rendered to the originals: a fault which, in such a work as the present, is on the right side. With respect to the crying sins and the shameful errors which stain the memory of Louis XIV. there is no room for a difference of opinion; yet we think that these pages shew that great injustice may be done to that famed personage. The account throws us back into the war of the succession. To exhibit this monarch's vices with high colouring was proper, but why are bad motives to be assigned to the good which he performed? The man who had no laudable quality has seldom existed; and Louis XIV., with all his errors, was certainly not that man. Is it no merit to have been as it were the creator and chief of a society in which genius, wit, refinement, and good breeding shone with a lustre never before nor since equalled? Those who would judge impartially of the weak, vain, and ostentatious monarch, should mark how he was considered

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in the transcendent circle in which he moved. We have documents in abundance which disclose the private sentiments of able observers, who thoroughly knew their sovereign.

The critique of the ingenious author on Telemachus commands our entire acquiescence; and the examination of the merits of the several *chefs d'œuvre* of our immortal dramatist bespeak a kindred spirit.

Hume being likely to engage a large share of the attention of the royal pupil, it is with much propriety that he is elaborately criticized by the present writer:

'His finely painted characters of Alfred and Elizabeth should be engraved on the heart of every sovereign. His political prejudices do not strikingly appear, till the establishment of the house of Stuart, nor his religious antipathies till about the distant dawn of the reformation under Henry V. From that period to its full establishment, he is perhaps more dangerous, because less ostensibly daring than some other infidel historians. It is a serpent under a bed of roses. He does not (in his *history* at least) so much ridicule religion himself, as invite others to ridicule it. There is a sedateness in his manner which imposes; a sly gravity in his scepticism, which puts the reader more off his guard, than the vehemence of censure, or the levity of wit; for we are always less disposed to suspect a man who is too wise to appear angry. That same wisdom makes him too correct to *invent* calumnies, but it does not preserve him from doing what is scarcely less disingenuous He implicitly adopts the injurious relations of those annalists who were most hostile to the reformed faith; though he must have known their accounts to be aggravated and discoloured, if not absolutely invented. He thus makes others responsible for the worst things he asserts, and spreads the mischief, without avowing the malignity. When he speaks from himself, the sneer is so cool, the irony so sober, the contempt so discreet, the moderation so insidious, the difference between Popish bigotry and Protestant firmness, between the fury of the persecutor and the resolution of the martyr, so little marked; the distinctions between intolerant phrenzy and heroic zeal so melted into each other, that though he contrives to make the reader feel some indignation at the tyrant, he never leads him to feel any reverence for the sufferer. He ascribes such a slender superiority to one religious system above another, that the young reader, who does not come to the perusal with his principles formed, will be in danger of thinking that the reformation was really not worth contending for.

'But, in nothing is the skill of this accomplished sophist more apparent than in the artful way in which he piques his readers into a conformity with his own views concerning religion. Human pride, he knew, naturally likes to range itself on the side of ability. He, therefore, skilfully works on this passion, by treating, with a sort of contemptuous superiority, as weak and credulous men, all whom he represents as being under the religious delusion.'

The author ably and ingeniously contends for the right of civil communities to avail themselves of the aid of religion, in advancing

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advancing all the ends of good government. The merits of the question, however, are only slightly touched; and no pains are taken to distinguish between the good effects which would arise from religion being prevalent as an individual concern, and those which flow from giving it that protection and encouragement which constitute what are called establishments. We fully agree in the opinion that

'It would not, perhaps, be easy to cite an higher authority, on the point in question, the importance of religion to a state, than that of the great and excellent Chancellor de L'Hopital. It was a common observation of his, that "religion had more influence upon the spirits of mankind, than all their passions put together; and that the cement, by which it united them, was infinitely stronger than all the other obligations of civil society." This was not the observation of a dreaming monk, who, in his cell, writes maxims for a world of which he knows nothing; but the sentiment, derived from deep experience, of an illustrious statesman, whose greatness of mind, zeal, disinterestedness, and powerful talents, supported France under a succession of weak and profligate kings. Frugal for the state, in times of boundless prodigality; philosophical in a period of enthusiastic fury; tolerant and candid in days of persecution, and deeply conscientious under all circumstances; worthy in short, and it is perhaps his best eulogium, to be driven, for his virtues, by Catherine di Medici, from counsels which his wisdom might have controlled; and who, on giving up the seals which she demanded, withdrew to an honourable literary retreat, with the remark, that "the world was too depraved for him to concern himself any longer with it." These are the men whom corrupt princes drive from the direction of those states, which their wisdom and virtue might reform.'

In speaking of books, the writer presents us with this passage, which we do not quote as altogether approving it:

'To burthen the memory with a load of dry matter would, on the one hand, be dull; and with a mass of poetry, which she can have little occasion to use, would, on the other, be superfluous. But, as the understanding opens, and years advance, might she not occasionally commit to memory, from the best authors in every department, one select passage, one weighty sentence, one striking precept, which, in the hours devoted to society and relaxation, might form a kind of thesis for interesting conversation. For instance, a short specimen of eloquence from South, or of reasoning from Barrow; a detached reflection on the analogy of religion to the constitution of nature from Butler; a political character from Clarendon; a maxim of prudence from the proverbs; a precept of government from Bacon; a moral document from the Rambler; a passage of ancient history from Plutarch; a sketch of national manners from Goldsmith's Traveller, or of individual character from the Vanity of Human Wishes; an aphorism on the contempt of riches from Seneca, or a paragraph on the wealth of nations from Adam Smith; a rule of conduct from Sir Matthew Hale, or a sentiment of benevolence from Mr. Addison; a devout

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a devout contemplation from bishop Hall, or a principle of taste from Quintilian; an opinion on the law of nations from Vattel, or on the law of England from Blackstone.'

Comparing the periodical essays of Addison and Johnson, the author makes this sound and able criticism:

'It is less from Johnson than from Addison that we derive the interesting lessons of life and manners; that we learn to trace the exact delineations of character, and to catch the vivid hues, and varied tints of nature. It is true, that every sentence of the more recent moralist is an aphorism, every paragraph a chain of maxims for guiding the understanding and guarding the heart. But when Johnson describes *characters*, he rather exhibits vice and virtue in the abstract, than real existing human beings: while Addison presents you with actual men and women; real life figures, compounded of the faults and the excellencies, the wisdom and the weaknesses, the follies and the virtues of humanity.—By the Avarus, the Eubulus, the Misellus, the Sophron, the Zosima, and the Viator of Johnson, we are instructed in the soundest truths, but we are not struck with any vivid exemplification. We merely *hear* them, and we hear them with profit, but we do not *know* them. Whereas, with the members of the Spectator's club we are *acquainted*. Johnson's personages are elaborately carved figures that fill the niches of the saloon; Addison's are the living company which animate it. Johnson's have more drapery; Addison's more countenance. Johnson's gentlemen and ladies, scholars and chambermaids, philosophers and coquets, all argue syllogistically, all converse in the same academic language; divide all their sentences into the same triple members, turn every phrase with the same measured solemnity, and round every period with the same polished smoothness. Addison's talk learnedly or lightly, think deeply, or prate flippantly, in exact concordance with their character, station, and habits of life.'

Adverting to the causes which led to the revolution in this country, it is observed;

'The long reign of Queen Elizabeth seems to have been designed for the purpose of consolidating and perpetuating the great work which had been accomplished. During that period, all the energies of the prerogative were exercised for the exclusive maintenance of the established religion. And may we not believe, that this was necessary, till the new order of things should have established itself in the habits of the people.'

A zealous adherent to our establishment may naturally take this view of the subject: yet still he must detest the men, however sacred their characters and exalted their stations, who persecuted even to death numberless pious and worthy individuals, for differences the most trivial. Nothing in our history is more disgusting than the proceedings of the two metropolitans, Parker and Whitgift. With great deference to the present ingenious writer, we would ask, *may we not believe*" that more of connivance and forbearance, which so well become a christian

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tian magistrate and minister of the gospel, might without prejudice have been shewn?

During a considerable part of these volumes, the author states enlarged and liberal views with a sprightliness and an ease which are very remote from religious austerity; the countenance is overcast by no gloom, nothing of fanatical acerbity discovers itself, and the physiognomy is almost uniformly serene and cheerful. Towards the close of the work, however, when treating more immediately on the subject of religion, amid much which we admire, and which we would strongly recommend, we observe some remarks thrown out which too clearly betray the peculiar notions of the writer: but here she deals in enigmas, and more is insinuated than expressed. As she herself before observed of Hume, so we may say that the caution and address here used do not, perhaps, render the counsels less dangerous. Far be it from us to intimate that the writer acted with conscious disingenuousness, for on the contrary we believe her motives to be pure, and her designs laudable: but we must be allowed to observe, and we wish to do it without offence, that it is because she has not avowed her rigid religious tenets, and pressed them on the royal pupil, that we have commended her work upon the whole. We should indeed deeply lament to see the probable future sovereign of these realms become the victim of religious enthusiasm, and countenancing principles already perhaps too widely disseminated, and too powerfully supported.

The royal pupil is here treated with all the *bienseance* which her exalted rank prescribes. The directions for the formation of her understanding, if they do not embrace the extent of knowlege in which it ought to exist in the mind of a great and enlightened sovereign, merit much commendation, and are highly creditable to the enlarged views and very respectable attainments of the writer. Nothing like adulation degrades the page. The obligations of virtue, the sacredness of the laws, and the duties of her elevated situation, are enforced with honest sincerity; the dangers which beset the eminence, on which she is destined to stand, are not dissembled; and well selected examples, both for caution and for imitation, are held up to her view. It is ably demonstrated to her in what real greatness consists; that the sole durable foundations, on which it can be erected, are the happiness and affection of a people; and she is exhorted to love, cherish, and pursue those principles which placed her family on the throne, and which have endeared it to the free and loyal subjects of these realms.—To conclude, then, while we object to some matters in the theological part of these volumes, we are still of opinion

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opinion that they will form very acceptable companions to the studies of the young princess, who was contemplated in the composition of them.

ART. VIII. *Poems*, by George Richards, M. A. late Fellow of Oriel College, Oxford. Crown 8vo. 2 Vols. 10s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1804.

IN the sixth volume of our New Series, p. 398, we bestowed due commendation on the "Aboriginal Britons" of this author. The other pieces, with which this poem is now accompanied, certainly manifest classical taste, and an intimate acquaintance with some of our most celebrated modern bards: but we are reluctantly compelled to acknowlege that they are rather tamely correct than animated or impressive; and that, instead of transporting us by rapid and sublime flights, they drag us slowly along in torpid smoothness. Few of Mr. Richards's productions have pleased us more than the dedicatory stanzas in the first volume, addressed to the Earl and Countess of Harcourt:

"Turn, stranger youth, thy vagrant feet
O turn to this delightful seat *;
Here Fancy builds her fairy bowers:
Here Isis winds her classic stream;
And distant o'er the valleys gleam
Thy favourite Oxford's spiry towers.
Poetic dreams the scenes inspire;
And HARCOURT loves the tuneful train.
Here MASON swept the sounding lyre:
Here WHITEHEAD pour'd his graceful strain."

'Sweet to my ear the sounds were borne,
While yet in life's gay opening morn,
Poetic visions gleaming bright,
On Cherwell's lonely banks I stray'd:
I heard, and with a blush obey'd.
I sought the summer-mantled height:
I seem'd through Paradise to rove:
The air with sweetest music rung:
The Graces rang'd each lawn and grove:
The Muse from every thicket sung.

'Sooth'd by her song, I careless stray,
While roll the summer suns away:
Her visions all my soul o'erpower:
She bade before my wondering eyes
The bleak Caucasian mountains rise,

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* "Turn, Angelina, ever dear,
My charmer, turn, and see," &c.
Edwin and Angelina.

And

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Light the cold traveller o'er the snows: yet there
In freedom shalt thou roam: there shall thy sons
Sit on an hundred thrones; there nerve with force
And train to war upon the inclement rocks
Thy tribes heroic; till on beds of snow
By the keen breath of icy winter brac'd,
With giant limbs, and arms of monstrous size,
From rocks, and forests dark, and frozen wilds,
Fierce as the Caspian storm, invincible,
Resistless, terrible, they rush on Rome,
Shake like an earthquake all her hundred realms,
And lay her mighty empire in the dust.'

Again,

'Marches long,
O'er wood, moor, fen, and rock, and snowy wild,
Where not a foe will cheer the way with conquest,
The fang of winter, and keen famine's gripe,
Shall never break me.'

The general smoothness of the versification is sometimes strangely broken by such lines as these:

'Soon will these untrod mountains o'er.'
'Huge heaps of shapeless stone tumbled loose round him.'
'Our tribes shall roll huge mass of unhewn stone.'
'With the proud expectation, BALDER, SIOFFRID,
HODER, and HAROLD, SIGISMUND, and BRAGER.'

Without being exempt from such minor blemishes, the tragedy of *Emma* is unhappily planned, and feebly executed. The plot hinges on the hackneyed tale of female innocence ruined by villany. The unfortunate fair one, we need hardly intimate, dies of a broken heart,—her brother falls in combat with her seducer, who was formerly his friend,—and the aged father is abandoned to solitude and sadness. On these incidents, which are so familiar to the compounders of modern novels and romances, Mr. Richards has ingrafted the manners of the chivalrous age, and has oddly enough adapted to the whole the continuous scene and classical costume of the Greek theatre. With these incongruities, he blends the description rather than the exemplification of passion, and scenes which would be truly pathetic were they not unduly prolonged.

Of the odes and miscellaneous poems which occur in the second volume, '*the Fair Pilgrim*,' '*the Ode to Peace*,' '*the Christian*,' and '*Bamborough Castle*,' have pleased us most. From the last, we select the following lines:

'At solemn midnight, when the bark shall ride,
With streaming pendants o'er the peaceful tide;
When trembling moon-beams play along the brine,
And stars round all the glowing welkin shine;

When,

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When, silent borne along, the whitening sails
Swell with the summer's gently breathing gales;
The pilot, listening to the wave below,
Which hoarsely breaks against the passing prow,
Shall thoughtful turn, where dimly to his eyes
Through the pale night these mellow'd turrets rise;
And, as he muses on some friend most dear,
Rais'd by thy mercy from a watery bier,
Swelling at heart, shall o'er the tranquil wave
Give thee a sigh, and bless thy hallow'd grave.'

In his imitations of the antients, the poet has been more restrained than animated; and, in borrowing from modern sources, his language sometimes approaches too nearly to that of his original. Thus,

'The time will come,
When the proud mountains, the broad base of earth,
The ocean and majestic firmament
Shall vanish into nothing.'

These lines immediately suggest a very celebrated and very popular passage, which is more beautifully expanded by our great dramatic bard.—

'Turn'd to the north,
Deep in the rock I trac'd the Runic rhyme,
Over the grave mutter'd mysterious sounds,
And thrice three times call'd loud on Rinda's name,
She heard, she spoke,'

Here are very plainly recalled the well-known lines of Gray,

"Facing to the northern clime,
Thrice he trac'd the Runic rhyme,
Thrice pronounc'd in accents dread,
The thrilling verse that wakes the dead," &c.

When, however, we thus candidly point out what we conceive to be objectionable in these volumes, we are fully aware that their author has aimed at a height to which few have attained; and that, though we cannot rank him with a Milton, Mason, or a Gray, he deserves a respectable station among our poets of the second order.

ART. IX. *Odd Whims and Miscellanies.* By Humphry Repton, Esq. 2 Vols. Crown 8vo. 18s. Boards. Miller. 1804.

AMONG these odd whims, the author's wonderful humility is not the least; for, while Mr. Windham, to whom the book is dedicated, 'studied to raise the glory and secure the best interests of the country,' Mr. Repton says that 'he was content to guide its taste and improve its scenery.' Nay, he can even

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even condescend to trifle, since 'the wise, the good, the benevolent man, and the man of genius, knows the value of trifling.' These handsomely printed volumes, embellished with coloured engravings, are therefore the fruit of his relaxation.

Vol. I. besides the dedication and introduction, contains essays intitled, *Thoughts on Happiness*, *Variety of Characters*, *on Love*, *on Dissipation*, *on Cheating*, *Allegory of Hope and Expectation*, *on Gratitude*, *on Fashion in Dress*, *the Bashful Man*, *Voyage to the Moon*, and *the Friar's Tale*. As these are reprinted from a collection published in the year 1787, under the title of *Variety*, we refer for an account of their character to the 79th volume of our Review, p. 440.

The second volume commences with *Observations on the Drama*. A few of these are of a general nature, and point to the circumstances in our present manners which affect the character of our theatrical exhibitions: but Mr. R.'s own comedy, intitled '*Odd Whims*, or *Two at a Time*,' is the figuring piece which suggests the remarks. Though written upwards of twenty years ago, and honoured with the approbation of Burke, Sir Joshua Reynolds, and other competent judges, it has never been represented on a London theatre. 'However anxious,' says the author, 'I might originally have been for the performance of this play, I was afterwards not less desirous to have it suppressed: because my profession made me known to the public more advantageously than I could hope to be as the author of a comedy, of which the event must be ever doubtful.' We were very honestly participating in the other sources of the author's consolation, at which he hints in these introductory pages, when, to our surprize, we found by the concluding paragraph that he had 'consented to try the effects of the comedy,' at Mr. Wilkins's new theatre at Ipswich. 'Thus of necessity many copies of it have gone from me: lest any one of these should be published without my consent, I determined to have a few copies printed, together with the drawings, which convey more lively ideas of the scenery, appearance, and dresses of the characters, than might otherwise be formed from the perusal of the work.'—Leaving Mr. R. to explain the consistency of his own feelings, we have to observe that most of the characters in this piece are sustained with ability; and that the plot, though double, and rather at variance with probability, is contrived to excite a certain degree of interest. Yet we cannot allow that the odious Lord Argent, Wilson, Susan, and Madam Crepon, are fit subjects of ridicule, that the misdeeds of Sir James Oddwhim should pass under the gentle appellation of 'juvenile faults,' nor that the performance abounds in elegant and playful humour. Sir

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Geoffry Oddwhim is, indeed, a truly comic character: but he might have been more frequently introduced, or placed in more marked situations. Even the conversation of the Irish Waiter is overloaded with studied bulls; and Mad. Crepon's depravity prevents us from laughing at her voluble and impetuous jargon.

The disguise of Charlotte and Ruki, the black servant, is well conceived, and gives rise to one of the attempts at ludicrous scenes which occur in the comedy:

'*Re-enter Charlotte, disguised.*

'*Char.* If I shou'd be discover'd!—will she not know me, think ye?

'*Ruki.* No fear, no fear—impossible, me almost tink you be myself—you look so like an angel.—Missy, no fear—massa himself be in de coach—hush! here she come.

'*He sits down at the table in the place of Charlotte.*

'*Enter Crepon, who gives a letter to Charlotte, and she goes off.*

'*Crepon.* Give dat to your master.—Well! did you take de tings. [*Ruki turning his back, makes signs with his elbow.*] You vil no speak?—ven milord come, he mak you speak, ma chère.—You have learn mak signs of de black voman—voulez-vous ôter le manteau?—you vil not pull it off?—milord vil teach you to mak signs—pardi, he teach you every ting.—I vil send and let him know you want to speak to him, though not to me———

'*Enter Lord Argent.*

'Ah, le voilà! Susan perhaps have tell him you come here.—Ah, milord! dere is you angel—la voilà! she is von sulk to me—go to her milord.—Oh, de blushing innocence! she vant to hide her face—go to her milord.—I vil leave you togeder—charming pair!—dat be so made for von another. [*Exit.*

'*Lord A.* Can you, my adorable Charlotte, forgive the stratagems I have used to obtain you? do they not prove the ardour of my passion?—bewitching creature, why do you thus conceal those charms that are, that must be mine?—yes, dear girl, indeed you must be mine—then let me enjoy a willing prize.—What! not a word!—has not Crepon explain'd how vain is all resistance here?—then why this obstinate silence?—unveil those lovely features. [*Takes Ruki's hand covered by a white glove.*] My whole soul thrills at the delicious touch.—Oh! my bewitching Charlotte—does silence give consent?—say, dear girl—it must be so;—still not a word?—nay, then 'tis so indeed—and thus to my aching bosom will I press my lovely blushing——Oh! [*Here Ruki seizes him round the waste, squeezing him, and throws him down, putting his knee on his stomach.*

'*Ruki.* Ah! milord, I will press you aching bosom!—Oh, how I love!—tak dis—and dis—to make you soul tril vid de delizzy touch. [*Struggling and kicking.*

'*Lord A.* Help!—murder!—the devil!—help!—help!'

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The fugitive pieces, which consist of a few occasional prologues and other effusions, are scarcely intitled to particular notice. The verses 'on a clog, found in the carriage which had taken home Miss Marsh, and two other ladies,' might obtain a place among the *Swiftiana*.

Though, in general, no friends to the easily acquired reputation of a parodist, we transcribe '*the Wish enjoyed*,' which is the counterpart of "*the Wish*" by the author of "the Pleasures of Memory:"

'So damp my cot beside the hill,
The bees have ceas'd to sooth my ear;
The willowy brook that turns the mill,
Is turn'd to please the Miller near.

'The swallow hous'd beneath my thatch,
Bedaubs my windows from her nest;
Instead of pilgrims at my latch,
Beggars and thieves disturb my rest.

'From out the ivy at my door,
Earwigs and snails are ever crawling;
Lucy now spins and sings no more,
Because her hungry brats are squalling.

'To village church, with priestly pride,
In vain the pointing spire is given,
Lucy, with *Wesley* for her guide,
Has found a shorter road to Heaven.'

On the whole, this second volume of *trifles* may contribute its share to beguile a vacant hour: but its contents are not such as are likely to produce either temporary delight, or permanent admiration.

ART. X. *Archæologia*, or Miscellaneous Tracts relating to Antiquity, &c. Vol. XIV.

[*Art. concluded from our last volume, page* 377.]

THE article which next occurs to our notice manifests learning, and may excite curiosity: it conveys an *Explanation of the Inscription on a Brick from the Scite of ancient Babylon, by the Rev.* Samuel Henley, *M. A. F. A. S.*—This brick has already been offered to the attention of the society by Dr. Hulme*. The present expositor apprehends that the inscription which it bears, expressed in Hebrew characters, distinctly exhibits two words, which literally signify, *a brick baked by the sun*; and this interpretation he endeavours to support, adding that, 'in

* No. X. of this Volume.

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perfect accordance with this inscription are the hieroglyphical figures attending it.' Can we suppose a brick to have been thus inscribed?

William Owen, Esq. is, we doubt not, at once faithful, candid, and zealous in the account which he communicates of *antient Welsh Manuscripts*; 'preserved, for the most part, within the Principality, sources but little known to the inquisitive antiquary; sources, of which even the existence hath been doubted by the candid literati; and, I may add, of course denied by the captious, ever more indulgent to their own prejudices, than anxious to investigate the truth: but such must be unavoidably the case, with respect to a people, so circumstanced as we are in Wales, insulated from the nation at large by the barrier of a peculiar language; for, in this language is written every thing deemed worthy of preservation; and as none study it but ourselves, the whole remains, generally speaking, unknown to the rest of the world.' To establish the authenticity of Cambrian manuscripts, which has been questioned, is the great object of this short tract. As one means of effecting this end, the reader is directed to the treasures of British manuscripts in the possession of some of the leading families in the Principality; of which collections, several are particularly enumerated.—'The principal heads under which these stores of British learning may be classed, are, Poetry, Bardic Institutes, Laws, History, Theology, Ethics, Proverbs, Dramatic Tales, Grammars.'—Some antient manuscripts, it is well known, are little worthy of preservation, any farther than as they afford evidence in favour of others more deserving of regard.—'The *Mabinogion*, or juvenile amusements, being a kind of dramatic tales, are in themselves some of our most singular productions; and I have little hesitation in asserting them to have been the origin of romance-writing in Europe. It is to be lamented that, owing to the credulity, or want of penetration in our early chroniclers, the high colouring and the ideal action of these tales were incorporated into our national history; so that it is from thence we are to account for the character drawn of Arthur and his knights, with other extravagancies of a similar kind.'

Farther Discovery of Antiquities at Southfleet in Kent, communicated, as before, by the Rev. Peter Rasleigh, rector of that place.—On the removal of a pavement of stone, was found a sarcophaghus, or massy stone, divided into two parts, top and bottom, very nicely fitted in a groove: within the oval excavation, two large glass urns or vases were placed, containing remains of burnt bodies, with a transparent tasteless liquor, reaching, in one of them, to the very brim of the vessel. Two pairs of shoes were also found with them, much decayed by time,

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but enough of them remaining to shew their form, and to prove that they had been very superb, and of very expensive workmanship. Some other objects, exciting inquiry even in their perishing state, were also discovered: but no inscription, mark, or coin, by means of which any judgment might be formed concerning the time of interment, or the family to which the spot belonged. Four plates accompany this short letter, one of which ascertains the foundation of the building, or walls, which surrounded the tombs.

The *three Roman Urns, together with a Cromlech, found in different parts of Cornwall*, are not unworthy of notice:—we can merely insert a few lines with which the Rev. Malachi Hitchin finishes the account. Having mentioned the parish of Ludgvan, in which one of the urns was deposited, it is added:—'In this same parish is situated the *well of Collurion*, famous in time immemorial for its ophthalmic virtues; and it is a very singular circumstance, that it never occurred to any of the historians of Cornwall, Dr. Borlase, the rector of this parish, not excepted, that the name of this well is pure Greek, κολλυριον, a medicine for the eyes. How it was called by this name is a subject of curious inquiry and research.'—Mr. Hitchin concludes that it could not be given by the Phœnicians who traded here for tin, since their language has so great an affinity with the Hebrew, nor can he think that the Greeks had any traffic in these parts. He apprehends that Greek soldiers, sometimes incorporated in the Roman armies, might have received benefit from these waters, and also have given this name to the well.

A short account is given by the Rev. James Dallaway, *of the Walls of Constantinople*: but we are, perhaps, unreasonable in expecting more than is here offered. We learn, however, from this relation, that there are three distinct walls, and ditches between each of them: the one nearest to the city is said to be from 60 to 80 feet high, and from 10 to 15 in breadth, with very wide battlements or embrasures resembling those at Caernarvon or Conway. At the distance of about 50 yards, a tower, more frequently hexagonal than of any other shape, but seldom square, rises 20 feet above the wall; and on this series of towers, greater architectural skill seems to have been exerted than on those of the outer walls. Several of them now attract the eye, as having the names of the emperors inserted, by whom they had been restored;—these names are formed in marble or iron, in pieces of about a yard long. The fosse is 25 feet broad, and now divided into gardens for the culture of melons or tobacco.—In the second wall, the towers correspond with those of the first, but are

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generally semi-circular, and open on the inside, many feet lower, and more frequently dilapidated: they are likewise of much inferior workmanship.—Concerning the exterior or third wall, we are informed that it is still easy to trace it: but it was never decorated nor defended by towers, and has so far yielded to the ravages of war and time as to shew a very unequal outline.—When we reflect, according to this writer's description, that 'these are objects of so much historical consequence, exhibiting a picturesque grandeur unequalled in any part of Europe,' we incline to wish still for farther details, and appropriate observations. We are disposed to inquire about buildings and places *adjacent to the walls:* we are ready to ask, What remnants are there of the Hippodrome, once so distinguished for the opposite scenes of gaiety, festivity, triumph and grandeur, of horrors and cruelties, massacres, tumults and desolations;—the Hippodrome, where we beheld among other objects the conceited and arrogant Justinian, with his infamous wife, when seated on exalted thrones, humbling and maltreating their faithful General Bellisarius;—where we have also seen that astonishing versatile genius, that faithless, enterprizing, ferocious, yet sometimes useful, villain Andronicus II. suddenly and unexpectedly seized, when at the very pinnacle of magnificence and pleasure,—hurried away to two remarkable pillars in the Hippodrome, between which he was suspended by the heels,—and there, amid taunts and provocations, reproaches and contempt, wounds and injuries most insufferable, he lingered for hours, till at length death gave him a release!

Observations on the Ogmian Hercules of Lucian, and on the derivation of the word Ogham, by Stephen Weston, *B. D. F. R. S. and F. A. S.* In the first volume of *Archæologia*, at the distance now of more than fifty years, appeared a dissertation on the above subject, with which this is immediately connected. It is learned and curious, but admits not of any farther notice from us than to announce it thus briefly; for though not very long, it consists of extracts from Lucian, which we cannot abridge, and other remarks concerning the Celts, the Scythians, the Shanscreet, the language of Iran, &c. requiring explications and remarks which will not well comport with our prescribed boundaries and intention.

Copy of an original Manuscript, containing Orders made by Henry, Prince of Wales, concerning his Household, in 1610. The conduct of this worthy young man seemed to predict honour and usefulness for future years, but Heaven's high order directed otherwise. We appear to have here a specimen of his prudence, good sense, and piety: his instructions have also a manly

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manly, benevolent, and generous air, and are little tinctured with that arbitrary tone and spirit which, from his father's high sentiments of divine right and prerogative, and the predominant notions of the time concerning kingly power, might have been expected. It is observable that he begins with reflections relative to religion and it's offices; and as he entered on these orders with such sentiments, he is willing to conclude them in a similar strain.—Yet partial as we incline to be to those who employ rational and gentle measures for the religious assistance of servants and others under their care, we cannot cordially approve the mandates which insist in a peremptory strain that all the branches of a family shall, four times in the year, attend and receive the communion. Such injunctions, it is known, have been delivered, even by those who did not observe the institution themselves, or perhaps allow it's authority. The meaning of the prince was doubtless good; although the topic of liberty was not, in his day, well understood, either by the governed or the governor. We are much gratified to remark that his highness entered his protest against the wicked and most dishonourable practice of duelling, and thus effectually demonstrated the reality and the steadiness of his piety and virtue.—This manuscript is accompanied, in the notes, by extracts from a tract, said to be rare, intitled, "A discourse of the most illustrious Prince Henry, late Prince of Wales, written anno 1626, by Sir Charles Cornwallis, sometime treasurer of his Highness's house," which may serve to illustrate these orders.

An *Appendix* presents us with partial communications from papers which it has not been deemed proper to publish entire.—Among these, we observe several subjects of a curious nature, such as,—an original grant, and an original charter, in the reigns of Edward III. and Henry III. with the appendant seals;—strange wooden figures found in Jamaica; yet somewhat of a like kind, if we mistake not, have been discovered in other parts;—a small *bronze lar* of Mars, with two inscriptions;—antient culinary vessels of copper, remarkably thin;—an antient cross, from the church-yard of Somersby, Lincolnshire;—a curious, bell-metal hunting pot, of remote antiquity, adorned by numerous figures relative, as it should seem, to the chace, with an attending motto, *Je su pot de graunt honhur, Viaunde a fere de bon savhur*: it is in the possession of the Hon. Colonel Greville;—an iron candlestick, of times far remote, found with others in the bed of the River Witham, Lincolnshire;—a medal, commemorating Charles I. of the size of a crown piece; the device is somewhat singular, being a diamond on an anvil, with a hammer on it; the word *Inexpug*

nabilis added to the other part of the inscription: 1648;—a mutilated head of stone, presenting itself in the year 1797 in the ruins of an old flint-wall at Merton in Surrey, having been once a part of the antient walls of Merton Abbey, Surrey; when found, the head was painted, and the coronet gilded: whether it is to be numbered with *memorabilia* of any great value, the learned Society does not inform us. Something more is said concerning a profile, or head in *basso relievo*, dug from among the ruins of Persepolis; comprized in a short, but, in our view, respectable paragraph, extracted from a letter written by Richard Stracey, Esq. and dated Ispahan, Oct. 9, 1800. Visiting, with others, these celebrated demolitions, their grandeur exceeded all Mr. Stracey's expectation; he wished to bring away some carved figure, but obtained only this remarkable head, with a curled beard and hair, which he concludes 'must have belonged to the grand procession, ornamenting the walls of that staircase leading to what is termed the *hall of columns*.'

We find also a list of presents to the Society, since the appearance of the last volume, together with a catalogue of those prints which have been published in the *Vetusta Monumenta*. We regard it as honourable to this scientific fraternity, that, having amended some errors in a plate belonging to the 13th volume of this work, they now, with each copy of the present, give a corrected impression. The engravings form a valuable and entertaining part of this miscellany, and are executed, in general, with much accuracy and taste.

ART. XI. *The Policy and Interest of Great Britain, with respect to Malta, summarily considered.* 8vo. pp. 156. 3s. 6d. sewed. Hatchard. 1805.

THE frequent reference in this tract to points of public law, and the manner in which the subject is treated, seem to us to indicate that its author is an able and learned civilian, who holds a high station in the island to which it relates: but whether this surmise be correct or not, certain it is that the comprehensive views, the varied information, and the masterly language, which distinguish the performance before us, would well become any rank or profession. It is at the same time far from being a laboured production, for it bears all the marks of haste; and the sole object of the writer appears to have been to submit his important materials to the view of the reader, without attending to any thing like plan and arrangement. He has collected together a great portion of matter, (whether all that

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was to be procured, we cannot determine) which relates to his subject: but with it is mixed some that might have been spared without prejudice. Abundance of reasoning is produced in aid of his conclusion, but it is blended with much more, the relevancy of which we are unable to discern. To a sufficient number of cogent arguments, he adds those which evidently fall short of their object; and we think that he weakens his cause by the superabundance of means which he brings forwards in its support.

The point for which the author gravely and deliberately contends is nothing short of this position, that the fate of Britain is suspended to the rock of Malta; 'a rock,' he says, 'which is placed in the very center of the Mediterranean: possessing a port in which the British navy might moor, and presenting a coast impregnable, if but moderately defended, by any assault; guarding the whole of the Levant, and effectually controuling the naval movements of France on the East in that sea.' He also describes this station as the most valuable and formidable fortress on the surface of the globe. 'It is to Britain,' he tells us, 'another Gibraltar, a pass of Thermopylæ.' If England retains this possession, a limit will be set to the acquisitions of Bonaparte; if she quits her hold of it, this invaluable spot falls inevitably into the hands of France; Egypt, the gate and vestibule of the East, as it is here called, follows; the bar to universal empire, now standing in the way of that state, is removed; and she will soon behold a captive world at her feet.—Strange as this statement sounds, let no one treat it as chimerical and visionary, till he has perused the pages in which it is expressed.

New circumstances in the world obliged Britain to become a Mediterranean power; and to act in this character, the permanent possession of Gibraltar and the occasional occupation of Minorca, it is observed, became necessary. In like manner, the late changes render it equally requisite to the maintenance of the same preponderance in future, with that which Britain held in past times, that she should possess the additional post of Malta. France, he says, has been for a very long time duly sensible of the importance of this fortress; and he refers to the famous memoir of Leibnitz, and to several public and private documents, in confirmation of his assertion. Without it, Britain cannot maintain her wonted relations with the markets of Italy and Greece, with the ports of the Levant, with the Black Sea, and with the coast of Barbary: nor can we otherwise keep the balance even between us and Russia, on account of the late acquisitions of that state on the Black Sea. The immense central power of the French empire is only to be compressed

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compressed within any reasonable limits, by a contact between the Russian and British ports as well in the Mediterranean and its adjoining seas, as in the Baltic. 'By means of Malta, we shall not only come into a sure contact, but we shall be able to form a *strong articulation* with the Russian power, in the point where the enemy is most to be feared; and thus to establish and render perfect a system of compression, which, if maintained with suitable persistency and vigour, and its force successively communicated to the intermediate states, must in the end exhaust and subdue the central violence.'

The author next shews the importance of this island in an event which he deprecates, but which, though improbable at present, may happen hereafter, namely, an union between Russia and France in opposition to the British empire. The prospect of the long foreboded crush of the Turkish power imposes on us, he thinks, the obligation of not abandoning this post.

'It will be of incalculable importance that we should be present, in force, amidst the scenes of rapine and usurpation that will immediately attend that catastrophe. It will be indispensably necessary, at such a period, that we should vigorously watch the conduct of France: that we should be able to persecute her with our vigilance, and distract her by our ubiquity; that we should frustrate all her prospects of rapacity; and by the strongest measures that sagacity can devise, or vigour effect, insure her exclusion from Egypt, and so destroy in the source, all the train of disasters that must otherwise ensue upon her acquiring possession of that coveted territory.'

We think that the author directs most of his superfluous labour to the question of our right to retain this strong place. *Our right*, on the footing of conquest, cannot be disputed for a moment; and all the sanction is given to our claim which the best title can have, when it is shewn to be the unanimous and unequivocal wish of the Maltese that his Majesty should exercise the supreme authority over them. Charles V., in assigning the dominion of the island, violated a solemn written contract of his ancestors with its inhabitants. He forfeited for ever, by this cession, the claims of himself and his house to the sovereignty; and it reverted to the people, with the right of putting it in exercise, whenever they should be in a situation so to act. They found themselves in this situation on the dissolution of the order of St. John of Jerusalem, when, with the aid of Great Britain, the French were driven out of their territory; and thus invested with their original rights, they freely and solemnly entreated to be admitted into the allegiance of the British crown. Admitting, however, the reversion of the sovereignty to be in the crown of the two Sicilies, this

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cannot affect the right of the crown of England; since the king of Naples is not in a situation to assert and support his claims, and to guard the possession against the enemy and rival of Great Britain.—When the author, in order to corroborate our claims, founds a title on the intent of the grant, he egregiously fails. If the reversion of the sovereignty of Malta has fallen in, the party in whom it vests has a choice whether to grant it out again or not; and if he resolves in the affirmative he is doubtless to select the person with whom he will invest it. The right of Great Britain to retain Malta, as founded on conquest, on the extinction of the antient sovereign, and on the voluntary tender of allegiance by the Maltese, stands on a foundation as firm as the island itself. How it is affected by the treaty of Amiens is a great question, and one that is here little considered; the author being satisfied that the aggressions of Bonaparte forced us into a war, and released us from the terms of that compact before his right to have them inforced commenced.

Another topic occurs in this part, which we insert rather for its curiosity than its importance:

'In enumerating the *political* powers which we derive from the occupation of Malta, we are not to overlook a most efficacious *moral* power; of which we likewise became possessed, the moment that the genius of Britain, the evil genius of Buonaparte, first took post upon that island. Already has his empire of darkness suffered molestation from the proximity and splendour of truth; the rays of which, diffused from the centre of Malta, have cast their light upon the opposite coasts. Already the illumination of a free press, discreetly used, and judiciously directed, has begun to dissipate the mists of error and deception which enveloped that wide horizon *. Already the system of falsehood and deceit, by which the tyrant governs the minds of his subject nations, has experienced some counteraction from that efficacious engine; and he himself, and his tyranny, stand now fully exposed to the public view of Italy, of Greece and the Levant.'—

'The parts of Europe where the French and German languages principally prevail, are, unfortunately, under the controlling scourge of France; but that extensive range where the Italian language is the common medium of intercourse, I mean, the entire circuit of the Mediterranean Sea, is placed completely within our reach by possessing Malta. At this central, this umbilical point, the genius of truth has now established his oracle: an oracle, more truly divine and terrific than that of Delphi; from whence he can utter his voice to the surround-

'* For several months past, an Italian paper has been published weekly in Malta, the object of which may be inferred from what is here said. This paper, actively distributed in the Mediterranean by the opportunities which our naval superiority must ever command, is perused with avidity, not only in the islands of Greece, but on the coast of Asia Minor, and at the regencies upon the coast of Africa.'

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ing nations, and dispense in every direction the rays of that searching light, which Buonaparte labours to shut out from his dark and evil empire, by every contrivance of artifice and force. And shall we now extinguish that salutary light, merely because Buonaparte

"———— tells us, how he hates its beams!"

The following passages display patriotic and enlightened views, which well deserve the attention of those under whose consideration they may fall, and which will secure to the author the esteem of all good men:

'There still remains another question for the consideration of our national justice and honour—a question of very grave and serious importance: How are we to retain Malta, and by what principles are we to rule it? Certainly not like some new island in the Charibean Sea, or Western Ocean; to be colonized by Englishmen, and worked by slaves. We have discovered no new island, neither have we extended the limits of our colonial system. In annexing Malta to the British dominions, we adopt a portion of the ancient world; we receive among our numbers, and incorporate into our empire, an ancient race; a people, who reverence religion and law, and who value legitimate freedom and civil enjoyment; a people, who possess a strong national character, many excellent natural capacities, traditional partialities and disgusts, ancient and acknowledged privileges, activity and courage, loyalty and honour; and in whom all these qualities will acquire increased force, as soon as their feelings shall have recovered from the torpor caused by the incumbent pressure of the knights' government; and as soon as they shall have derived some degree of elation and confidence, from participating in the common strength and dignity of the British Empire.

'Admonished by the remembrance of Corsica, we shall not attempt to remould the Maltese upon the form of the British constitution; but, following the duty prescribed by our relation towards them, we shall secure to them the perpetuity of those native usages, which long local experience, and hereditary partialities, prescribe for their own government.

"The sole right of the conqueror is derived from justifiable self-defence. If the conqueror thinks proper to retain the sovereignty of the conquered country, and has a right to retain it, the same principles must also determine the manner in which he is to treat that state:—On the submission of the people he is bound *to govern them according to the laws of the state.*"

'If such would have been the incontestible right of the Maltese had they been conquered in arms against Great Britain, how much more justly is it so, when they themselves were confederate parties with her in the conquest, which expelled the common enemy, and placed their country in her power? The common interest that now unites England and Malta, calls for the constant presence of a representative of the British Crown in that Island; on the one hand, to secure the interests of that Crown in Malta; and on the other, to afford to the people a perpetual evidence, and prompt experience, of the royal protection. But all that this common interest demands, in civil matters, is the

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presence of his Majesty's civil representative, and of the few individuals immediately requisite to give effect to the duties of his office. In every other particular, the ancient civil establishment of the island is complete in the hands of its native inhabitants: thereby happily precluding the introduction of the most pernicious evil that could possibly creep in, to undermine and destroy our credit and security in the possession of this valuable dependency—a jobbing system, for the increase of patronage at home.'

If the author be able to convince the British public that Malta is of the awful importance which he represents, the animated and eloquent apostrophes which he addresses to it at the close of his work cannot fail of their desired effect.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,
For JUNE, 1805.

TRAVELS.

Art. 12. *Journey into South Wales*, through the Counties of Oxford, Warwick, Worcester, Hereford, Salop, Stafford, Buckingham, and Hertford, in the Year 1799. By George Lipscomb, Esq. 8vo. pp. 450. 7s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1802.

THOUGH this volume is designated an account of a journey into South Wales, only 140 of its pages are devoted to that country; and Hafod, and the neighbourhood of the Devil's Bridge, are the sole places at which the author appears to have made any halt. He did not enter Pembrokeshire, Glamorganshire, nor Monmouthshire; the latter of which, though included in an English circuit, should never be overlooked in journies taken for such purposes as that of Mr. Lipscomb. Many objects are omitted, of which other travellers have spoken; except in the above instances, Mr. L. never deviates from the main road; and with regard to these, his information is more scanty and less accurate than that which has been afforded by his predecessors.—Nearly a hundred pages are occupied in describing the author's peregrination from Buckingham to London; and upwards of fifty monumental inscriptions, given at length, and in CAPITAL LETTERS, much contribute to fill this space.—The whole forms a very superficial and flimsy detail.

Mr. Lipscomb introduces his narrative by a hardy attack on all periodical critics; and were he now living *, he would perhaps attribute our unfavourable opinion of it to resentment of this hostility. We may state, however, that, if his hypercriticisms excited in us any such feelings, we have kept his work on our table long enough to subdue them, and that our judgment of its merits remains the same.

NOVELS.

Art. 13. *The Lake of Killarney*. By Anna Maria Porter. 12mo. 3 Vols. 13s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co.

Inoffensiveness is the only praise which the fair author of this

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* The papers lately announced his decease.

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novel claims to herself. It is represented to have been written during the languid hours of an infirm state of health, for amusement rather than for fame; and it is now offered to the public, not for their criticism, but to afford them an opportunity of partaking in the pleasure which the writer derived from the composition of the work.—Under this information, we shall not be so ungallant as to exercise any severity of remark; on the contrary, we shall willingly observe that many parts of this novel claim more than the praise of inoffensiveness, for they are pleasing and well written, although the thread which connects the story together does not continually serve to conduct the reader along through the winding paths. We attribute this defect to the state of the author's health, which probably interrupted the chain of ideas, and weakened their mutual dependance on each other.

Art. 14. *The Unexpected Legacy*. By Mrs. Hunter, of Norwich. 12mo. 2 Vols. 9s. Boards. Longman and Co.

It must be allowed that the moral tendency of a production of this nature, and the invitations which it holds out to a course of virtue, as well as to rectitude of intentions, are points of considerable importance; and we are happy to observe in the present instance, not less than in former publications from the pen of Mrs. Hunter, that this merit undoubtedly attaches to the fair author. The work does not admit of any concise description of its outline, since it includes several intermediate narratives, which are each distinct and separate stories: a mode of conducting a novel which divides and subdivides the interest and the attention of the reader; insomuch that we warn him not to be surprised if, after having read the 'Unexpected Legacy,' he should scarcely recollect at the conclusion either the nature of the bequest or the merits of the donor.

Art. 15. *What you please*, or Memoirs of Modern Characters. 12mo. 4 Vols. 16s. Boards. Longman and Co.

The hero of this tale is a young man of singular merit and accomplishments, whose narrow circumstances induce him to accept the office of tutor in a nobleman's family. While he resides in this situation, a mutual affection between the hero and the amiable daughter of the nobleman lays a foundation for their future union. Various events intervene to procrastinate this happy event; some of which will amuse, and others perhaps will appear tedious to the reader. The writer displays ability in describing characters, and their peculiar turns of temper; and he shews himself, in many instances, a good observer of the springs and motives which influence the conduct of individuals in the commerce of life. A number of quotations from classical authors are also introduced, which inform us that the writer is a man of education. The ambition which he expresses, that the moral tendency of his work should be approved, is much in his favor; and we recollect but one instance in which he has deviated from so laudable a design, viz. the indulgence which he is disposed to allow to what are called 'occasional gallantries.'

Art. 16. *Modern Literature*. By Robert Bisset, LL. D. 3 Vols. 12mo. 15s. Boards. Longman and Co.

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It is with reluctance and regret that we withhold our general approbation from this performance: but we must confess that we were much disappointed at discovering in these volumes passages of such a nature and tendency, as a sense of decorum would forbid us to detail. In other respects, the novel is not of an interesting kind. Its object is to delineate the manners of the times, and particularly those of persons engaged in departments of literature: but, although a great number of personages are introduced, the author has no felicity in developing and unfolding the peculiar distinctions and shades of character. Hence the reader is not more interested in a narrative of this kind, than in a newspaper anecdote, where certain actions are ascribed to certain individuals, but no opportunity is presented of forming what is equivalent to a personal acquaintance with the character recorded. This defect must necessarily render all biography, whether real or fictitious, less interesting in proportion to its extent; and in avoiding this fault, consist the great art and secret of fascinating and rivetting the mind of the reader; as Fielding, Smollett, and our other eminent writers in this walk have so happily illustrated in their writings.

The papers inform us that Dr. Bisset is lately dead.

Art. 17. *Jessica Mandeville*, or the Woman of Fortune. By Miriam Malden. 12mo. 5 Vols. 17s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co.

Those painful emotions, which are raised in the bosom of the reader by the relation of persecutions and indignities offered to an innocent and unprotected female, are here not a little relieved by the anticipation which he bears along with him through the lengthened story, that some delightful remuneration will arrive at the conclusion, as the merited reward both of the heroine's and his own patience Thus it was that while we were reading the tearful tale of Jessica Mandeville, more wearied than interested by her woes, we endured the toil like the faithful pilgrim, "hoping unto the end." The termination of her sorrows in a happy marriage was as satisfactory as we could wish; and although we are unable to class her eventful history among the most polished or most fascinating productions of the kind, yet, in regard to good morals and religious principles, we doubt not that every reader will accord with us in forming a favorable opinion of the author.

Art. 18. *Village Anecdotes*; or the Journal of a Year, from Sophia to Edward. With occasional Poems. By Mrs. Le Noir. 12mo. 3 Vols. 12s. sewed. Vernor and Hood.

The usual occurrences of a village life are not calculated in themselves to excite sufficient interest in the detail, but require to be accompanied with certain incidents which awaken generous emotions in the reader, and make an appeal to his heart.—The mere relation of morning-visits or morning-walks, of the conversation of Mr. Ewer, or the miscarriage of Mrs. Bertram, of a party sitting down to the tea table, or preparing jellies for their company, will furnish but an insipid treat, and can excite no particular sensations of either a pleasurable or a painful nature. The diction of this work is also extremely low and colloquial.

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Art. 19. *Casualties.* By Mary Goldsmith. 12mo. 2 Vols. 6s. sewed. J. Hookham.

A perseverance in the path of virtue gives stability to the mind in every struggle of life, insures the possession of inward peace, and eventually leads to happiness and honour. In the history of Sabina, whose occupation is that of a mantua-maker, this truth is here illustrated; and after many trials and conflicts with adversity, (such as having her house burnt down and her goods spoiled, being taken to prison for debt, &c. &c.) the virtuous Sabina is established by marriage in an honorable situation of life.—Learn, ye mantua-makers all, from this instructive lesson, to mind your needles, and earn a "virtuous bit of bread."—As a composition, this novel boasts no high merit.

RELIGIOUS.

Art. 20. *The Destruction of Jerusalem an absolute and irresistible Proof of the Divine Origin of Christianity:* including a Narrative of the Calamities which befel the Jews, as far as they tend to verify our Lord's Predictions relative to that Event. With a brief Description of the City and Temple. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Sael. 1805.

Though this subject has been very often discussed, it has rarely been placed in a more striking and impressive manner before the public, than by the present writer; who has undertaken thus to abridge and consolidate this part of the evidence in support of the truth of the Gospel, to confirm the wavering faith of christians, and to shake the vain confidence of unbelievers. Historic facts are produced in proof of the complete fulfilment of every part of the predictions in the New Testament, respecting the destruction of the city and temple of Jerusalem. The author gives too much credit, however, to the *prodigies* said by Josephus to have preceded this awful catastrophe; and perhaps his comment on the *heifer*, which brought forth a *lamb* in the temple at the time of the Passover, might have been spared. It is remarked as worthy of particular observation, that 'the day on which Titus encompassed Jerusalem was the feast of the Passover; *i. e.* the anniversary of that memorable period in which the Jews crucified their Messiah!'

We are inclined to think that this writer lays too much stress on the accuracy of Josephus. For the general facts, he may be trusted: but some of his details may be questioned. He exalts the power of his own nation even in recording its subversion. According to him, the population of Jerusalem, when it was besieged by Titus, amounted to nearly *two millions* of people: but if the trench which surrounded Jerusalem was only thirty-nine furlongs in length, *i. e.* less than five miles, is it credible that two millions of people could be contained within a city of so inconsiderable a circumference as Jerusalem must have been?

To the several objections which have been urged against this part of the evidences of the truth of christianity, sensible answers are returned; and the author invites the infidel to consider how highly improbable it is that these predictions, so accurately corresponding with the subsequent horrors, were no more than the fortunate guesses of the person to whom they are ascribed.

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'If it be here objected, that, because wars are events of frequent occurrence, it would be improper to refer to supernatural foresight a successful prediction respecting them, it is replied, that much of this objection will be removed, by considering the incompetency of even statesmen themselves to foretel the condition, only for a few years, of the very nation whose affairs they administer. It is a well-known fact, that the present minister of Great Britain, on the very eve of the late long and destructive war with the French Republic, held out to this country a picture of fifteen successive years of peace and prosperity. Indeed, the nice points on which peace and war often depend, baffle all calculations from *present* aspects; and a *rumour of war*, so loud and so alarming, as even to suspend the operations of husbandry, may terminate, as we have just seen, in nothing *but rumour*. Further, let it be considered, that the wars to which this part of our Lord's prophecy referred, were to be of *two* kinds, and that the event corresponded accordingly; that they occurred within the period to which he had assigned them; that they fell with the most destructive severity on the *Jews*, to whom the prophecy at large chiefly related; and that the person who predicted them was not in the condition of a *statesman*, but in that of *a carpenter's son!*'

In conclusion, the author exhorts us to take warning from the fate of Jerusalem.

Art. 21. *An Essay on the Christian Sabbath*, including Remarks on Sunday-Drilling. By Joseph Hughes, A. M. 8vo. 1s. Williams.

The obligation to observe the sabbath, it is here maintained, is not confined to the Jewish polity, but, like the rest of the commandments, this, which enjoins the duty of appropriating one day in seven to purposes of religion, is general, and to be obeyed by all nations. Whether this position may be allowed or not, the institution itself is undoubtedly most excellent; and although we have no wish to see the seventh day characterized by fanatical austerity, we regret that it is so often wholly employed in secular pursuits and amusements. The pamphlet before us is well written, and evinces an amiable zeal in the author for the preservation of religion in these degenerate days.

Art. 22. *A Manual of Religious Knowledge*; for the Use of Sunday Schools, and of the Poor in general. By the Rev. J. Grant. 12mo. 2s. Hatchard.

Expositions of the church catechism, this author justly remarks, are oftentimes more difficult to be understood than the catechism itself: but his object has been, in this treatise, to make men plain christians, rather than controversialists; and he asserts, from experience, that it is calculated to answer the end designed. We should not, perhaps, approve of every part of this treatise: but it appears in general adapted to the use of the poorer classes; and the advice given to those who have the management of Sunday schools is worth their attention.

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Art. 23. *Three Plain Reasons against separating from the Established Church.* By Edward Pearson, B. D. Rector of Rempstone, Nottinghamshire. 12mo. 6d. Hatchard.

Unity in religion is desirable:—not, however, as Dr. Clarke remarks, "unity of opinion in the bond of ignorance, nor unity of profession in the bond of hypocrisy; but *unity of the spirit in the bond of peace.*" Mr. Pearson is solicitous to promote unity in a more confined sense; and as members of one civil community, it is desirable, in many views, to banish, as much as may be possible, religious differences: but we must change the nature of the human mind, before we can induce all people to think alike. It is here contended, 1st, that *unity* among Christians is enjoined in Scripture; 2dly, that uniformity of public worship among Christians, who are in habits of intercourse with each other, is a necessary means of preserving unity; and 3dly, that to join in the established form of public worship is a part of that obedience which we owe to our civil rulers. All the advocates for religious liberty, whether they belong to, or dissent from, the Establishment, will demur to this last reason; it proves too much; it makes the civil magistrate the lord of conscience; and it involves Daniel and the Jewish worthies, the original preachers of the Gospel, and the protestant reformers, in much blame. It is the duty of Christians to consider well the consequences of divisions, and to avoid, on slight pretexts, a separation from the dominant church: but the right to follow the sincere dictates of conscience must be maintained, or an intolerable spiritual tyranny would be established;—a tyranny less defensible even than that of the Church of Rome, which does not refer the decisions of faith to a temporal, but to a spiritual head. If Mr. P. re-considers his arguments, he must, we are persuaded, find them inconclusive. Much as uniformity of public worship is to be desired, it is not a *necessary* means of preserving unity. Men of liberal minds will agree to differ, and love one another, though they cannot assent to the same theological doctrines. Few will be hardy enough to revive the old conscience-saving principle of *exoteric* and *esoteric* doctrines; or define how far tacit acquiescence in public systems is to be extended. Mr. Pearson, however, intimates that Dissenters ought to wait for alterations in the Establishment, since the Church does not shut the door to improvements. The Dissenter, we fear, will say, "This is only plaistering over the wound which I wish you to cure. My daily devotion cannot live on such kind of faith and patience."

Mr. P. totally misconceives the subject of Toleration, as it exists in this country; and here the whole of his third reason falls to the ground. By the Toleration Act, the Dissenting Church becomes *an* established Church. Circumstances are prescribed respecting her public worship; and her ministers, conforming to the law, are allowed certain immunities.

Art. 24. *Three Plain Reasons for the Practice of Infant-Baptism.* By Edward Pearson, B. D. &c. 12mo. 6d. Hatchard.

Mr. P.'s three reasons are, '1. that Infant-Baptism among Christians corresponds with infant-circumcision among the Jews. 2. That it is highly probable that Infant-Baptism has been practised by the

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generality of Christians ever since the days of the Apostles. 3. That supposing the practice to be an error, it is an error on the safer side.' Here again this pious divine's last argument is the weakest, and might have been omitted. Let Infant-Baptism be proved to be sanctioned by apostolic usage, and the anti-pædobaptist will give up the controversy; superseding the necessity of discussing the danger of leaving unbaptized infants 'to the *uncovenanted mercies* of God.'

Art. 25. *An Admonition against Lay-Preaching.* By Edward Pearson, B. D. &c. 12mo. 6d. Hatchard.

To assume the office of a public religious instructor, and to undertake to explain and enforce the sacred oracles, without some kind of qualification, is a species of presumption and arrogance which merits the severest rebuke; and Mr. Pearson's admonition would have had more force, had it been restricted to individuals of this description: but now, according to his definition of Lay-Preachers,—viz. those who have not been ordained by Bishops, or by presbyters of the Church of Scotland,—Lardner, Doddridge, and Leland were lay-preachers; men, compared to whom, for biblical science, the generality of the regular clergy in every church are mere pigmies. For such enlightened divines to preach is no '*sin*;' to hear them is no '*folly*.' Why did not Mr. P. take stronger ground? Why will he gravely tell us that the three Jewish orders, High-Priests, Priests, and Levites, correspond to Bishops, Priests, and Deacons, in the Christian Church? Has Mr. P. ever studied the Constitution and Discipline of the Primitive Church? As he lays the whole stress of his argument on *regular* ordination, and as 'the ceremony of regular ordination is *necessarily* left to be determined by each national church;' he makes it impossible for any dissenting church to have regular ministers, be they ever so well instructed in their own colleges, and ever so solemnly ordained according to their own forms.—Such reasoning, at the present day, will excite no conviction.

Art. 26. *Three Discourses*, by the late Rev. William Turner, of Wakefield. 8vo. pp. 73. Johnson.

The subjects of these discourses are,—Public worship, with its proper qualifications;—The shortness of human life;—and The future happiness of Christians, particularly as an admission to the society of *the spirits of just men made perfect*. If the style and composition be not wholly without faults or defects, yet they are in this respect superior to many sermons which issue from the press; and, which is far more important, they are formed by thought and study; not in a hasty but in a cautious manner, presenting weighty and useful truths to our regard. They are altogether practical, and recommend what is so, in a manner which is convincing and impressive: the last, we think, is the most animated, and calculated both to console and invigorate the Christian in this state of imperfection and vicissitude.

As to numbers who are prone to be hasty, presumptuous, and positive, it might be happy for the world, and wise for themselves, if they received and considered one remark which here presents itself respecting the Scriptures, when it is said,—'revelation furnishes all the requisite means for practice, but not to satisfy speculative curiosity. The

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only method to preserve ourselves from perplexity, when we attempt to meditate on these arduous subjects, is to be humbly sensible of our weakness, and *to suspend our judgment* concerning them till we arrive at that state of perfection, in which they shall be more fully displayed: for the spirits of the just are described as free from these embarrassments.'

Art. 27. *Reflections on the Neglect of religious Education*; more particularly addressed to Godfathers, Godmothers, Parents, and Ministers; with a few Thoughts on Sunday Schools and Sunday-Drilling. 12mo. 4d. Longman and Co.

That Godfathers and Godmothers promise too much, and perform too little;—that Baptism and Confirmation are regarded as mere forms;—that the engagements of the Sponsors and the prayer of the Bishop are in general alike inefficacious;—are truths on which every species of animadversion has been exercised. The remarks before us are serious and well-meant, but have nothing in them peculiarly striking, and will probably share the fate of similar strictures. If on the subject of education the writer justly complains that children learn to repeat the Catechism, &c. by rote, he ought also to consider that their instructors often put to them questions which their capacity cannot comprehend, and make not proper allowance for the immatured intellects of their pupils. The gentleman who asked a child at a Sunday school, after he had read the epistle in which St. Paul says that "he wished to depart and be with Christ," whether he also wished to die, might be a very good, but was certainly a very weak, man.

Art. 28. *An Answer to the Question, Why are you a Christian?* By John Clarke, D. D. of Boston, New England. 7th Edition. 12mo. 6d. Conder.

The late Dr. Clarke was a man highly respected in America for his talents and virtues, and the publication of this little tract extended his well-merited reputation. We have no where seen the important question, here proposed, discussed with more clearness and effect; and Dr. Clarke reasons in behalf of Christianity like a man who has carefully examined and is thoroughly convinced by its Evidences. The intrinsic excellence of Christianity, both in its doctrinal and preceptive parts,—the circumstances of its early history,—the completion of prophecy,—and the character and miracles of Christ,—form the ground-work of the argument; the last, however, Dr. Clarke particularly examines in order to reach the case of those infidels, of which many are to be found in America, who admit the unexampled character and doctrines of Christ, but deny his miraculous power. Such half-christianity is here exposed as inadmissible.

'Many, who reject the claims, and deny the miracles of Jesus Christ, admit the moral excellency of his character. A greater inconsistency cannot be conceived! What, is it no offence against the laws of morality to appeal to works never performed; and to pretend to the exercise of powers which never existed? Are deliberate falsehood, imposition, and hypocrisy, to be erased from the catalogue of crimes? Is impiety no stain? And to die with an obstinate and inflexible

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inflexible adherence to false pretensions,—is there nothing immoral in such behaviour? I confess I have very different views of right and wrong. And I feel a strong conviction, that falsehood and deceit, for whatever purpose they may be employed, and to whatever end they may be directed, are to the last degree criminal and disgraceful; yet this accusation must be brought against Jesus Christ, if he did no miracles, and was only a self-commissioned reformer.'

The doctrines and the miracles of Christ certainly rest on the same evidence, and must stand or fall together.

MILITARY AFFAIRS.

Art. 29. *Important Hints and Reflections on the present State of the Infantry Forces in general belonging to this Empire;* suggesting feasible Measures of rendering every Battalion of the *Volunteer Forces* of this Kingdom very far superior, in the most essential Points of Service, to the present State of the *Guards*, if not to any regular Regiment in Europe, in the short Space of *one Month*, &c. &c. By a very humble Patriot. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Lloyd.

Very high-sounding words and great promises appear in this title; yet the author's suggestions are few and plain. He maintains that the Guards, and all other Infantry regiments, (with an exception of the 52d) are extremely deficient in the primary and drill rules for the formation of a soldier, particularly in those of the 1st and 5th sections of the *Rules and Regulations*, relative to the *Position of the Soldier* without Arms, and the *Position in marching:* that the Volunteers are in course equally so; and that, by studiously drilling them for a month, in these essential points, the consequence would be that superiority to the regulars which the title-page holds forth. The author is undoubtedly well founded in his remarks on the great importance of these parts of a soldier's education, and in his statement of the imperfection generally prevailing with respect to them; more especially among the volunteers: but we doubt whether the remedy which he proposes be equally free from controversy, as to practicability and efficiency. The compliments paid to the 52d regiment, and the whole brigade under Sir John Moore's orders, we believe to be well deserved; and we recommend the author's account of the system pursued by that meritorious officer, as well indeed as the generality of the remarks now before us, to public attention.

The writer also suggests, with the view of 'diminishing very materially the horrible influence of the climate of the West Indies on our soldiery,' that the period of service there should be much shortened: confining it to three years of actual duty, and then returning the regiment to Europe. He thinks that this measure would not only diminish the actual danger, but, by animating the soldier with the hope of again beholding his native land, would check that despondency and abandonment to his fate which at present tend greatly to assist the ravages of disease. The mortality of our troops in those colonies is indeed a *horrible* reflection; and the subject demands the most serious consideration.

Art. 30. *Suggestions for the Improvement of the Military Force of the British Empire.* By the Hon. Brigadier-General Stewart, M. P. 8vo. 2s. Egerton.

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This pamphlet contains a more distinct and expanded view of those ideas on military matters, which General S. has lately expressed in the House of Commons. It presents the outlines of two very extensive plans of reform in the organization of our military force, and proceeds to details in each, an analysis or report of which would carry us beyond our usual boundaries. In the first plan, Gen. S. proposes to divide our forces into a *regular army*, of disposeable troops; and a *national army*, for service only within our home dominions, on different principles from those that regulate the present *militia*, which he would entirely disband. In the second plan, he institutes, first, a *Regular Army*, as before; 2dly, a *Reserve Army*, formed chiefly on the principle of the *Defence Bill* of the last year; and 3dly, a *Militia*, differently constituted from that which now exists.

In many of his observations, as in the system of recruiting, on the dreadful consequences of our West India duty, &c. General S. remarkably coincides with the author of the preceding tract, *Important Hints*, &c.; and we conceive that both writers manifest proofs of reflection and discernment which intitle them to notice and regard. The General agrees also with Sir Robert Wilson in his statements respecting *Courts Martial*, and offers some judicious ideas for the amendment of that branch of military law.

POETRY.

Art. 31. *The Melviad;* or the Birth, Parentage, Education, and Achievements of a Grete Mon. Addressed to the Commissioners, &c. &c. &c. By I-Spy-I. 4to. 2s. 6d. Robertson and Co.

A lame imitator of Peter Pindar has here borrowed his manner, but could not steal his soul. By such a satire, the affliction of Lord M. cannot be augmented; for we find in it little more wit than the motto in the title presents,

> 'Alack! Alack! poor Harry D—l
> Is this the end of "*Wha wants me?*"

POLITICS.

Art. 32. *Considerations upon the Necessity of discussing the State of the Irish Catholics, in the* ensuing *Session of Parliament* *. By James Mason, Esq. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Longman and Co.

Could Mr. Mason suppose that the legislature would refuse to discuss the state of the Irish Catholics? If he had any doubts at the time in which his pamphlet was written, they are now fully removed. It is confessed that the present reign has been distinguished by concession and mercy to the Catholics of Ireland: but disabilities remain, which, though immediately affecting only the superior classes of society, rankle in the minds of all, as the remnants of an illiberal and oppressive system. Whatever disloyalty may appear in Ireland, Mr. M. attributes it solely to persecution; and he would therefore restore to the Catholics the full enjoyment of civil privileges, build them churches, and give salaries to their clergy. At all events, the discussion of the subject is recommended; which, he thinks, though for the present it should end in the refusal of Ca-

* This pamphlet appeared before the late debates on this question.

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tholic Emancipation, will prepare the way for it when it can be obtained. Mr. M. speaks in high terms of the Irish character.

Art. 33. *Letter to the Noblemen and Gentlemen who compose the Deputation from the Catholics of Ireland, on the Subject of their Mission.* From the Hon. Henry Augustus Dillon, Member for the County of Mayo. 8vo. 2s. Budd. *June* 1805.

The date of this pamphlet seems to have been given in order to shew, that it is not to be classed with those which were occasioned by the late application of the Irish Catholics to the legislature, but that it has been composed subsequently to the recent discussions of their claims in parliament. Mr. Dillon congratulates the gentlemen, to whom his letter is addressed, on the turn which the debate took, and on the *majority of argument* displayed by the *minority in numbers*, whence a well grounded hope of ultimate success may be cherished. Zealous for the prosperity of Ireland, and persuaded that an equal participation of civil rights is the most effectual means of advancing it, he urges on the government a full consideration of this subject. The objections against Emancipation, as being incompatible with the Bill of Rights and the Coronation Oath, are scouted as chimeras; and the principles of the revolution are maintained to be the true principles of the constitution. No whig can be more strenuous than is Mr. D. on this occasion. His disapprobation of the union is strongly expressed, and he represents it as bearing peculiarly hard on the peers of Ireland. We are told, in direct terms, that Ireland cannot flourish as a protestant colony; that we must, in order to tranquillize it, win the affections of the majority of the people; and that it is unreasonable to expect that the Catholics will fight for 'a religion of disability, and a constitution of exclusion.' If a member of the reformed religion can thus write, the Catholics need not "bate one jot of heart or hope." Mr. D. is convinced that justice to the Catholics is the sure way of establishing the interest of the Protestant Church, and of advancing the work of proselytism.

Art. 34. *Strictures on the Tenth Report of the Commissioners of Naval Inquiry.* By Allan Macleod, Esq. To which are subjoined, an Appendix, containing the Substance of that Report, and Lord Melville's Letter to the Commissioners, &c. 8vo. pp. 96. 2s. 6d. Ginger. 1805.

Art. 35. *Reflections on the Proceedings of the House of Commons*, on the Nights of the 8th and 10th of April, 1805, embraeing a View of the Conduct of Mr. Whitbread and the Whig Opposition on those memorable Nights: to which is annexed a Copy of the Act for regulating the Office of Treasurer of the Navy. By Allan Macleod, Esq. 8vo. pp. 94. 2s. 6d. Ginger.

It has been observed that the most virulent of the Jacobins in France have become the most servile and abject tools of its present ruler. In the case of the writer before us, we have an instance of one of the most daring and devoted members of the same sect in England undergoing a similar transmutation; and rarely, we believe, has the press been prostituted to usher any thing to light so nauseous, virulent, and ignorant, as the *tirades* now before us. We here see the

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jacobin turned loyalist *enragé*: but he has only changed sides; the qualities of the individual, and the characteristics of the faction, remain the same; and the prototypes of these effusions are to be found in the speeches and dispatches of Fouche, Collot, Lebon, and Carrier, the late gods of this *ci devant* citizen's idolatry. He might have called these notable performances his *discoveries*; for, little as the titles promise of that nature, the reader will find that the pages are occupied solely by discoveries. From these he will learn that the commission for naval inquiry originated in motives the most base and disingenuous; that the conduct of the commissioners has been most unworthy and disgraceful; that a spirit of delusion has seized the people from one end of the kingdom to the other; and that this spirit has been conjured up by the Whigs, who are and always have been the authors of mischief, and the enemies, in every period, of the glory and prosperity of their country: while Mr. Wilberforce and his friends are represented as stunned by the clamour raised by the Whigs, deserted for the time by their reason, and becoming parties to injustice the most crying that was ever witnessed. It is thus that our late public proceedings are explained by the reclaimed martyr of jacobinism. He not only contends for the innocence of the acts of Lord Melville, but boldly maintains that merit is due to him on account of them. He denies that they amounted to a breach of the act, and dares all the world to dispute the point with him. No man, he tells us, *will venture* to say that his lordship violated the statute!—Surely the noble lord can have had no privity with an advocate of this description;—we must acquit him of so foul an imputation:—then who is at the expence of printing this miserable trash?

Lord Melville is in the hands of the law; and here, we are certain, complete justice will be equally administered between him and the nation, as far as it is within the competence of the tribunal to which the grave and solemn charge is to be submitted. Feeling all due respect for the Commons of England, and rejoicing in the firmness lately shewn by them in maintaining the honor of the laws, we own that we share in the surprise which the recent determination of their chamber has very generally excited. The Commons, in their late measures, acted as guardians of the public purse; then why surrender to another branch of the legislature, the prosecution of a delinquency which affected this their primary and proudest trust? Why assign the business to a prosecutor in whose private judgment the accused is without guilt? Why submit it to a jurisdiction, under which it may be doubted whether the offence, in some of its very essential parts, can fall? The rank of the offender, the august character of the accusing party, (the commons of the empire,) and the nature of the offence, seem to render not merely *more* but *solely* eligible, that form of trial which was negatived. It is ungenerous, as it strikes us, to impute to the informalities into which the accusers are said (without good grounds, in our judgment,) to have fallen, the rejection of the more solemn mode of proceeding. This charge is certainly preferred with a very ill grace by those who strained every nerve to obstruct the designs, and to defeat the objects, of those public-spirited individuals who so zealously stood up in vindication of the violated laws of their country. The

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accusers, as far as we are able to collect, have acted with a firmness, a dignity, and a temperance, which reflect on them the highest honor. The effect of the proceedings which they have instituted has been to inspire good men with confidence, to endear parliament to the public, to add incalculably to the force and sacredness of the laws, and to excite and animate public spirit. Their own consciousness, and the acknowlegments of all virtuous men, will form their reward. The defamation of such a writer as Mr. Macleod only adds to the enviableness of their situation; while his countenance and support form not one of the least humiliating circumstances, affecting the individual who is ordered to answer for his conduct at the bar of justice.—We pass over the obloquy that is here thrown on the whole body of Whigs; it must come from a quarter more respectable in order to induce notice from us.

While this sheet is in the press, we learn that the Commons have rescinded their vote for a *Criminal Prosecution*, and have reverted to the mode of *Impeachment*.

Art. 36. *Report at large of the Debate on a Motion made by S. Whitbread, Esq. for the Impeachment of Henry Lord Viscount Melville*, June 11, 1805, for the Offences stated in the Tenth Report of the Commissioners of Naval Inquiry. 8vo. 3s. 6d. Symonds.

Art. 37. *The Substance of the Speech of Lord Viscount Melville in the House of Commons, on the 11th June* 1805, compiled on a Comparison of a Variety of Notes taken by different Persons, and believed on the whole not to be materially defective in point of correctness. 8vo. 1s. Stockdale.

Though this debate and the speech of Lord Melville have been detailed in the newspapers, the interesting nature of the subject justifies the trouble here taken to give them with particular correctness; especially the defence of the nobleman, against whom the motion for impeachment was brought forwards. On the peculiar degree of accuracy belonging to the last of these publications, we are unable to pronounce: but, with respect to the 10,000l. allowed to be advanced for purposes not naval, and of which Lord Melville refused to give any account, his words are here somewhat different from those in the speech given in the debate at large; and this sentence is added, which does not occur in the first of these publications: 'It is unnecessary to dwell upon the uneasiness I have felt from the necessity of withholding explanation *on any part* of this subject, aware as I am of the many insidious and malignant observations to which any person must be exposed, who feels such reserve to be his only honorable line of conduct.'

The passages, also, to which the reader is especially desired to attend, are printed in *Italics*.

Art. 38. *Speech of the Right Honorable Lord Hawkesbury*, in the House of Lords, on the 10th of May 1805, on the Subject of the Catholic Petition. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Hatchard.

Lord Hawkesbury's speech was made in reply to Lord Grenville, who moved that the prayer of the petition be taken into consideration. As it has been given in the public prints, we need not state its contents.

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EAST INDIAN AFFAIRS.

Art. 39. *Brief Remarks on the Mahratta War*, and on the Rise and Progress of the French Establishment in Hindostan, under Generals de Boigne and Perron. 8vo. 1s. Cadell and Davies.

This tract professes to give a view of the circumstances which led to the late war with the Mahrattas; and it is a view which much coincides with the representations of Lord Wellesley, as stated in our Number for April last, page 397. The Mahratta power, the author tells us, arose during the distractions of the Mogul empire; and its original compact was predatory. The constitution is that of feudatory chiefs, the head of whom is called the Peshwa, and who exercises, according to his character or circumstances, more or less authority. At the beginning of the late contest, the power of the Peshwa had been so reduced that it was little more than nominal; and he was thus tempted to enter into a treaty with the English, which guaranteed to him his paramount dignities and rights, without trenching on the privileges, or circumscribing the possessions, of any of the feudal chieftains.

The inducements to this treaty, on the part of the English, are also here stated in the same manner as by the Governor General, in the tract above quoted; viz. the influence and power of the French in the territories of Scindia. The use which the French are said to have made of the peace of Amiens was to recruit the army of Mons. Perron in those territories through Pondicherry; and accordingly, we are told, a very large force was conveyed into that settlement, which failed of joining Perron solely through the vigilance of the Marquis Wellesley. Mons. Perron, at the time of this expected reinforcement, was lord paramount of 52 of the finest districts in India, at the head of 24,000 disciplined troops, and able to bring into the field 130 pieces of cannon. An alliance with the legal sovereign of the Mahratta empire was the only method of preventing an European influence hostile to the English power; since it shut against the French most of the western ports of India, and rendered the passage into Hindostan extremely difficult. It is here said that we were bound in duty, as well as by policy, in consequence of former treaties, to protect the Peshwa against the rebellion of a feudatory subject; and it was this treaty, concluded at Bassein, which excited the Mahratta chiefs to hostilities against the English. If the treaty was a fair one, the Mahrattas are clearly the aggressors; and the English cannot be regarded as such, unless the treaty itself be an hostile act against the same chiefs: in which light, we own, we do not see how it can possibly be considered. The correspondence with the Mahratta chiefs, respecting this treaty, was conducted on the side of the government of India by Col. Collins; and it is said to have been, on the part of the Mahrattas, the most extraordinary mixture of knavish duplicity and arrogant presumption, that even the crooked policy of Asiatic courts has ever displayed.

The author of this pamphlet appears to be master of his subject, and ably defends the cause which he espouses.

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MATHEMATICS.

Art. 40. *A Course of Mathematics*, designed for the Use of the Officers and Cadets of the Royal Military College. By Isaac Dalby, Professor of Mathematics in the said College. Vol I. Large 8vo. pp. 500. 14s. Boards. Printed for the Author.

We readily admit that this is a very useful treatise, abounding in appropriate examples. It contains also the demonstration of the several propositions in Geometry, Trigonometry, &c. on which are founded rules for the solution of questions occurring in those sciences. As the author very modestly claims no merit for the promulgation of new principles, but considers his book in the light of an abridgment, or compilation, we ought not, and intend not, to be very nice and scrupulous: but we think that some things might have been more concisely stated, without any loss of perspicuity. The proof, that sines of angles vary as sides opposite, considering the simplicity of the proposition, is operose and difficult. The fourth case ought to have been performed differently, since, in Mensuration, the author demonstrates the expression for the area of a triangle in terms of the sides; and from such expression, the sines of the angles might be immediately expressed in terms of the sides. This fourth case is, the three sides being given, to find the angles: now if a, b, c, be the sides, and $a+b+c=2P$, the author proves that the

$$\text{Area} = \sqrt{\left\{P.\ (P-a)\ (P-b)\ (P-c)\right\}}$$

now the area $= \frac{\text{perp}^r \times \text{side}}{2} = \frac{b.\ \text{sin.}\ A \times c}{2}$ (supposing A the angle opposite to the side a)

$$\text{hence sin. } A. = \frac{\sqrt{\left\{P.\ (P-a)\ (P-b)\ (P-c)\right\}}}{2-bc}$$

$$\text{and similarly sin. } B = \sqrt{\left\{\frac{P.\ (P-a)\ (P-b)\ (P-c)}{2\ ac}\right\}} \text{ &c.}$$

This is not the direct way of finding the sines; they ought to be found first, and then, from their expression, the area.—We have endeavoured to point out the connection of the two expressions, and to shew how the author might have avoided the insertion of two distinct and independent propositions.

In the Geometry, Professor D. says, as a definition, that the circular arc intercepted by two lines is the measure of the angle formed by these lines: but this ought not to be proposed as a definition, since it involves this proposition, viz. that, if the angle (A) be increased by $\frac{A}{m}$, the arc (a) will be increased by $\frac{a}{m}$; which, although it be true, wants proof, and has been proved by Euclid.—The author very judiciously gives the method of forming the Trigonometrical Canon.

On his mensuration of planes, solids, &c. on surveying, &c. we have no particular observations to make; as we have already said, each part abounds in examples, and in such as are appropriate. Mr. D. inquires, not what is the weight of a sphere of given diameter, &c. but

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but asks, if the weight of a shot 6 inches in diameter, &c. or the diameter of a 9lb. shot being 4 inches, &c. ;—and similarly, his questions relate to the strength, clothing, and marching of battalions; to the mensuration of redoubts, or of the salient angles of bastions;—to the allowance for windage, &c.—We must not, however, close our remarks without observing that, in the typographical execution of the work, our eyes were not pleased with the mixture of small characters and blank spaces.

ASTRONOMY.

Art. 41. *Evening Amusements*, or the Beauty of the Heavens displayed. In which several striking Appearances, observable on various Evenings in the Heavens, during the Year 1804, are described; and several Means within Doors are pointed out, by which the Time of young Persons may be innocently, agreeably, and profitably employed. Intended to be continued annually. By William Frend, Esq. M. A. and Fellow of Jesus College, Cambridge. 12mo. 2s. 6d. Boards. Mawman. 1803.

We have been very remiss in our notice of this performance: which, in justice to the author, and for the benefit of the public, we ought sooner to have recommended. The plan, which the title-page sufficiently sets forth, is extremely good; and the author, in acting on it, has with great success combined amusement with instruction, and has stated objects exactly and familiarly.

It is to be hoped that Mr. Frend has not relinquished his plan, but that he continues to instruct the star-gazers of 1805: but we have not seen advertized the *Evening Amusements* for the current year.

MEDICAL.

Art. 42. *A Practical Treatise on the superior Efficacy and Safety of Stizolobium, or Cowhage, (the Dolichos Pruriens* of Linné,) internally administered in Diseases occasioned by Worms; &c. &c. By William Chamberlaine, &c. &c. The 9th Edition enlarged. 12mo. pp. 184. 3s. sewed. Highley.

The present edition of this useful publication contains a more ample description of intestinal worms, with their symptoms and causes, than was given in the former impressions. The author's high opinion of the efficacy of the Stizolobium, in the removal of worms, is confirmed by the testimonials of various respectable practitioners, and by several cases which came under his observation, or that of his correspondents, and which are inserted in his Book. He appears to be candid and judicious; and it is fair to him to add, that he prefers a selection from the very numerous cases which have been communicated to him, displaying the good effects derived from Cowhage within the last 20 years, to any thing like indiscriminate publication.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 43. *Supplemental Volumes to the Works of Sir William Jones*, Containing the whole of the Asiatic Researches hitherto published, excepting those Papers already inserted in his Works. 2 Vols. 4to. 3l. 3s. Boards. Robinsons, and Evans.

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A properly magnificent edition of the works of this great character was announced in our xxxiid Vol. N. S. p. 128.; and the present volumes ought long since to have been mentioned, as constituting the necessary addition to the former. They include not merely Sir William's own discourses and memoirs, but the whole contents of the *Asiatic Researches* up to the year 1801, on the principle that there is reason to suppose that many of the anonymous papers were derived from his pen; and because, moreover, as 'the greatest part of these papers were produced while he continued to preside, they, in a special manner, are appropriate to him.'

Art. 44. *Tables of the several European Exchanges*, from London to Amsterdam, Rotterdam, &c.; from Paris, Bourdeaux, &c. to London, Amsterdam, &c.; from Madrid, Cadiz, Lisbon, Oporto, Genoa, Leghorn, Naples, Hamburgh, Venice, Petersburg, &c. &c. shewing by Inspection, the Value of any Sum of Money in all the principal Places of Europe, at the different Prices to which the Courses of Exchange may rise or fall; and describing in what Money, real or imaginary, Books and Accounts are usually kept, and Bills are drawn at each Place: with Tables equating the Monies of the Provinces of Spain; a Table of the Flemish Money; an Account of the Usances, &c. &c. By Robert Bewicke, of London, Merchant. 4to. 2 Vols. 4l. 4s. Boards. Richardsons.

Mr. Bewicke remarks in his preface that so long a time has elapsed since the appearance of any work of this nature, that all former publications have become of little service, on account of the great changes which have taken place in foreign commerce. He therefore trusts that the present Tables will be found of essential utility, as being formed on a more extensive plan than any hitherto offered to the public, and adapted to the present mode of operating in exchanges, in almost every place with which we have any connection. He speaks, moreover, with the greatest confidence, of their accuracy and precision; the greatest pains and attention having been bestowed on the revision of them.

There can be no doubt of the utility of such a publication to mercantile men: but mercantile men alone are competent to decide on its merits, from actual experience; and to them we must resign all criticism on these volumes.

Art. 45. *A Short Account of some important Facts relating to the late Election of a Mathematical Professor in the University of Edinburgh*; accompanied with Original Papers and Critical Remarks. 2d Edition. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Cadell and Davies.

Why will the Clergy, who remind us that "Wisdom is justified of her children," often take such astonishing pains to convince the world that they are not Wisdom's favourite sons? We know that a stupid cry has been raised against Philosophy by some timid ecclesiastics: but we were not prepared to expect from any of the ministers of the Scotch church residing in Edinburgh, such ignorance and illiberality as their opposition to Mr. Leslie's appointment to the Mathematical chair has discovered. Could they have known how incom-

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incompetent they were to the war which, for the sake of advancing the aspiring views of some of their order, and of casting a stigma on a learned and respectable Layman, they have provoked;—or could they have foreseen what artillery would be played off against them; we are persuaded that they would never have advanced to the contest. Professor Dugald Stewart, in the pamphlet before us, has most luminously explained the ground of the opposition of the Clergy of Edinburgh to Mr. Leslie's appointment to the vacant Mathematical chair, and the pretext of which they availed themselves to advance the views of their order. It is impossible not to admire the truly manly, ingenuous, and spirited conduct which the writer adopts on this occasion. He unites with Professor Playfair in exposing, with force of argument, the great impropriety of combining scientific professorships with ecclesiastical functions; and in course objecting to the appointment of the Rev. Mr. Macknight to the mathematical chair, unless he first agreed to resign his living; a measure to which his brethren were unwilling that he should accede, wishing perhaps to establish a practice by which the clergy of Edinburgh would obtain decided advantages.

The clergy, however, bethought themselves of a Note relative to Causation, in the *Essay on Heat*, which Mr. Leslie had lately published, and determined at all events to make it the ground-work of a charge of Atheism against him. The passage selected by these ecclesiastical critics is as follows:

"Mr. Hume is the first, as far as I know, who has treated of causation in a truly philosophic manner. His Essay on Necessary Connection seems a model of clear and accurate reasoning. But it was only wanted to dispel the cloud of mystery which had so long darkened that important subject. The unsophisticated sentiments of mankind are in perfect unison with the deductions of logic, and imply nothing more at bottom, in the relation of cause and effect, than a *constant and invariable sequence.*"

No sooner had Mr. Leslie heard of the charge of Atheism adduced against him in consequence of this note, than he wrote a letter to the Rev. Dr. Hunter, for the purpose of its being read to the Presbytery of Edinburgh, in which he both disclaims the principles objected to him, and protests against the mode of deducing them from the above-mentioned premises.

Professor Stewart deeply felt the importance of the subject to the University of which he is a most respectable member, to Philosophy, and even to Religion. He therefore boldly steps forwards to rescue the accused note from the severity of ecclesiastical censure, by shewing that the terms in which Mr. Leslie has expressed himself coincide with those which the most profound and pious philosophers have employed on the same subject; and that nothing could be more completely unfounded than the assertion of the Ministers of Edinburgh, "that Mr. Leslie having along with Mr. Hume DENIED ALL SUCH NECESSARY CONNECTION BETWEEN CAUSE AND EFFECT, AS IMPLIES AN OPERATING PRINCIPLE IN THE CAUSE, has, of course, laid a foundation for rejecting all the argument that is derived from the works of God, to prove either his being or attributes." Indeed, if

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if this inference be just, 'it not only involves the complete ruin,' as the author observes, 'of Mr. Leslie's character and hopes, but it rests the whole evidences of religion, both natural and revealed, on the *falseness* of a proposition, which has been unfortunately sanctioned by the authority of all those writers who have been hitherto regarded as the most able and successful defenders of our faith.'

Mr. S. apologizes for his warmth, but, we think, without occasion. His zeal for Mr. Leslie, whose literary merits he justly appreciates, is supported on public grounds; and no one can peruse the present pamphlet without acknowledging his magnanimity.

'*After* (says he) the discussions which took place in the Presbytery of Edinburgh,—in the presence of an indiscriminate multitude—in the presence of numbers of our own students, I acknowledge that I was glad of the proceeding. Interests of a higher nature than those of any individual were now at stake. Insult after insult had been offered to the University; and the opinions of our Academical Youth, concerning the foundations of those essential principles which it is my professional duty to illustrate, and which it has been the great object of my life to defend, were in no small danger of being unsettled by the crude and contradictory notions which were every where afloat. On the one hand, I saw a doctrine, which had been sanctioned by the highest names in Theology and in Philosophy, and which I myself for more than twenty years had laboured to establish, from the firmest conviction of its importance, not merely to the progress of physical science, but to the best and highest interests of mankind;—*this* doctrine I saw menaced with the anathemas of a powerful party in the Church; while, on the other hand, Persecution was preparing, as of old, to display her banners, in defence of an inconsistent jargon of metaphysical words, which waged war with the human understanding. In such circumstances, no alternative was left, but, by meeting the enemy openly in the field, to fall or to conquer. I trembled to think, that there was still a possibility that an escape might have been attempted in the Synod. Happily that danger is now over, and the whole merits of the case must, before the end of the ensuing week, be exposed to the light of day in the General Assembly. It is impossible to doubt, that the subject will there meet with all the attention which its importance demands. An injury of no common magnitude has been offered to the interests of our religion, to the credit of the Church of Scotland, and to the literary honours which have long adorned it; and it is in the wisdom and firmness of its Supreme Court alone that a prompt and effectual remedy can be found.'

Mr. Leslie's character has risen by the means which were employed to depress it; and his enemies, ashamed of their impotent and self-humiliating opposition, have been compelled to "hide their diminished heads."

SINGLE SERMONS.

Art. 46. *The Divine Visitations;* considered in a Sermon preached on the Fast-Day, Feb. 20, 1805. 8vo. 1s. Hatchard.

We do not perceive the reason which induced this author to withhold his name; for his sermon is serious, patriotic, and orthodox, though it possesses no very striking feature. He expresses his full conviction of the necessity of the present war, to prevent our subjugation;

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jugation; devoutly prays that it may be sanctified to the nation; and exhorts to repentance, with calling on the name of Jesus Jehovah for salvation. The deluge of novels, luxury, infidelity, and religious indifference, is specified as indicative of much national vice which threatens to expose us to divine visitations: but, to abate the alarm which may be excited by this representation, he augurs favourably for us on account of the supplications of many thousands of real Christians dispersed throughout the empire. Thus the fate of the country seems to be suspended between the wickedness of the many, and the piety of a few.

Art. 47. *Preached in the Parish Church of Leeds*, on June 13, 1804, at the Visitation of the Right Worshipful Robert Markham, A. M. Archdeacon of York. By John Sheepshanks, A. M. 8vo. 1s. Faulder.

In this *concio ad clerum*, the preacher reminds his brethren of the duty of evincing apostolical humility and zeal in their sacred office. The clergyman is told that, justly to comprehend and devoutly to utter the Liturgy is to preach the whole Gospel; and therefore that he ought not to hurry over the reading of prayers in the desk, in order to get into the pulpit, where he might possibly only preach himself. In preparing his discourses, 'the keeper of Christ's flock' is recommended to select his subjects from the lessons of the day, to discern the signs of the times, and not to speculate on points undetermined in the Scriptures. Mr. S. concludes with urging the duty of living in peace and charity with sectaries.

CORRESPONDENCE.

To the laborious communication of A. B. we are not able to reply at similar length: but we are obliged to him for reminding us of the severities with which Morgan, the famous Buccanier, was visited, late in life, by the Ministers of Charles II.; we mean his long imprisonment, and the consequences with which it was attended: circumstances which had at the moment escaped our recollection, at the time of perusing M. d'Archenholtz's History of the Buccaniers, to which A. B. refers *. We are aware that the adventures of this extraordinary man are involved in controversies which it lies not within our province minutely to sift: but if A. B., who seems to have bestowed much pains on the subject, will undertake the task, he may depend on having his efforts fairly appreciated by us. If he will again advert to the extracts to which he alludes at the close of his communication, he will find that they are produced as specimens of the descriptive powers of the writer, and not as relations to the authenticity of which we gave our sanction.—His papers are left at Mr. Becket's.

We shall comply with Mr. Taylor's request at our earliest opportunity.

N. B. In the Appendix to Vol. XLVI. (which was published with the last Review,) p. 493. l. 12. from bottom, for 'asthentic,' read *asthenic*.

In the Number for May, p. 1[illegible]. l. 17. from bottom, after 'was,' dele '*therefore*.'

* See Appendix to Vol. XLV. p. 459.

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THE
MONTHLY REVIEW,
For JULY, 1805.

ART. I. *Hygëia: or, Essays Moral and Medical,* on the Causes affecting the personal State of our middling and affluent Classes. By Thomas Beddoes, M. D. 8vo. 3 Vols. 11 4s. Boards. R. Phillips.

POPULAR treatises of medicine have been frequently given to the public, but, with a very few exceptions, they have neither obtained nor deserved any considerable share of attention. In the majority of cases, they are indeed scarcely objects of criticism; being either the vehicle by means of which the empiric announces his nostrums to the public, or the last resource of some needy book-manufacturer, who, according to the mandate of his employer, deals out politics or theology, metaphysics or medicine. The present performance is, however, of a different stamp. It is the production of an author well known in the scientific world; whose originality of genius is universally admitted; and who possesses, in an eminent degree, the power of captivating the feelings of his reader, by peculiar boldness of conception and energy of language. In these respects, Dr. Beddoes must be regarded as particularly well adapted for the task which he has undertaken: but there are other points, in respect to which he appears to us to have remarkably failed, as we shall more fully shew in the course of our observations.

Medicine is an experimental science of peculiarly difficult investigation. The facts from which its principles are deduced are numerous: but, in consequence of the great variety of operations carried on in the human frame, and the changes produced on it by the many external agents to which it is exposed, we find the utmost difficulty in ascertaining to what particular cause any individual effect is to be attributed, and in what degree that effect is modified by the interference of any counteracting influence. Hence it follows that the attempt to establish general principles, from the confused medley of facts that present themselves, has almost in every instance proved abortive. By the application of the correct notions of modern science to the art of medicine, we have at length learned not only to dis-

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card the hypotheses of our predecessors, but we are become sensible of the impossibility of substituting better in their room.

The object of the enlightened practitioner in the present day is two-fold. He endeavours to gain an accurate acquaintance with the appearance of disease, and a knowlege of the best method of removing it. The first cannot be acquired merely by books; and without the first, the second is comparatively of little value. Years of unremitting attention are scarcely sufficient to enable the young physician to commence his career of practice, with that confidence which a thorough knowlege of his profession can alone inspire;—how vain, then, must be the expectation that the perusal of a few pages should qualify, even the man of education, much less the mother or the nurse, to pronounce on a morbid condition of the body, or to discriminate between the shades of two resembling, but in reality opposite diseases? If it be difficult to acquire a knowlege of the general facts of medicine, how much more arduous an undertaking must it be to draw from these facts general principles, to clothe them in a popular dress, and to render them intelligible to the mass of mankind? There are, we think, but two medical topics, which can, with any prospect of advantage, be made the subject of popular discussion;—we may attempt to eradicate from the public mind certain prevailing but erroneous notions, founded on obsolete theories, which lead to injurious practices;—and we may point out to the uninformed the danger of trusting too implicitly to their supposed proficiency in the art of medicine.

It is time, however, that we recur to the more immediate consideration of the work before us. The first two essays may be regarded as in a great measure introductory: their principal object is to point out those circumstances, a want of attention to which produces an unfavourable influence on the state of the health; to impress on the minds of the people at large the importance of attending to whatever may contribute to strengthen or impair the constitution; and to warn them against falling into those prejudices which too generally prevail on these subjects. The first step to be taken, for the attainment of this end, is the acquisition of a general knowlege of the human frame, and its relation to the external agents by which it is liable to be affected. The author suggests,

'That seasonable care should be taken to provide each individual with a set of ideas, exhibiting the precise relation in which his system, and the several organs of which it is compounded, stand to external agents, particularly to those with which he is likely to come most in contact;—that these sets of ideas be so placed in his head, that he may

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may refer to them with as little difficulty as to the watch he wears in his pocket;—and that as by the one he adjusts his business to his time, so by the other he may be always able to accommodate his actions to his powers.'

Dr. Beddoes illustrates at some length the importance of this procedure; he attempts to convince the reader that the study which he recommends is not less interesting than useful; and he contrasts the unwearied assiduity with which we pursue the advancement of our prudential concerns, with the indifference that we feel on subjects connected with the well-being of the corporeal frame. To remove this apathy, he proposes that, in every considerable town, popular lectures should be delivered to a mixed audience, on select subjects of anatomy.—That, in proper hands, such a series of lectures might become tolerably interesting to some individuals, we are willing to allow; and, if no farther end were obtained, than to engage the mind in the pursuit of science, and thus divert it from the trifling topics which at present occupy so large a share of attention, we should be disposed to favour the plan. We are, however, of opinion that anatomy is precisely that branch of natural science, which is least adapted to excite and maintain the interest of a mixed audience. The senses must unavoidably be assailed by disgusting impressions; the memory will be burdened with a formidable nomenclature; and an eye, not already familiar with the objects, will perceive little more than a confused mass, in those preparations in which the experienced anatomist can detect the most beautiful and elaborate organization. If then we can expect little *amusement* to result from these studies, still less can we hope that any considerable share of *useful instruction* will be communicated. Anatomy must be considered as the basis of all medical science, but the light which it casts is thrown in too indirect a manner to guide the step of the uninitiated. Will the valetudinarian be more capable of judging with regard to the effect of different kinds of food on his stomach, after having seen this organ dissected? Or will the nervous female be in any degree better able to controul the irritability of her feelings, after having seen a skull opened, or heard the lecturer descant on the structure of the nerves? On the contrary, we conceive that the little smattering, which they might chance to acquire, would have the most direct tendency to render them fanciful and hypochondriacal;—would cause them to exaggerate their morbid feelings, and to exist in the perpetual dread of deranging some essential part of the complicated structure. This process occurs, in almost all instances, as a regular part of a medical education; the young student conceives himself affected with every disease, the symptoms of

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which he hears recited; and before he has completed Cullen's First Lines, he has gone through a whole nosology of ailments. This part of Dr. Beddoes's plan, which indeed must be regarded as the foundation of the whole, we cannot therefore but consider as absolutely untenable, and as calculated to produce directly opposite effects from those which are proposed by the author.

In consistency with this foundation of anatomical lectures, it might naturally have been expected that the pupil would be advised to pursue his studies by the perusal of medical books: but, we find Dr. Beddoes, in the 2d essay, declaiming with much energy against all works on popular medicine! He exercises his usual force of language in pointing out the absurdity of endeavouring to teach even a mechanical art, or trade, by mere reading; and he remarks that this absurdity must attach in the highest degree to any attempt of this kind with respect to the science of medicine:

'Here let me beg the reader to consider the power and province of mere rules in practical affairs of the easiest kind. No one has, I suppose, yet come forward with pretensions to teach the coarsest handicraft by a book. But in the tumult of literary projects, amid which we live, scarce any absurdity being impossible, let us imagine some adventurer, sufficiently intoxicated to undertake to communicate the capacity for exercising one of our humblest, and most useful trades, without apprenticeship, by a tract on *domestic shoemaking*. Should any one, after studying this tract, conceit himself qualified to handle the awl and the paring-knife, I leave it to be imagined by the reader, how unmercifully the leather would be pricked and slashed, and what would be the condition of the poor toes, condemned to be lodged in the receptacle, prepared by these learned hands?—Does common sense spurn at the idea of efficacious instruction in such an art by such means? Are the qualities, then, of leather more complicated than those of the living body? Does the art of managing the former to most advantage require a long apprenticeship, and not that of managging the latter? Are the tools that lie within the compass of the shoemaker's bench, more easy to employ properly, than the articles of the materia medica? I see, indeed, one essential difference. The incompetent mechanic will soon be marked. No clumsy workmanship of his can pass. Whereas, in medicine, bunglers may go on, I know not how long, without disgrace.'

We certainly did not expect to meet with this kind of reasoning in a set of popular essays on health; since we were totally unable to distinguish between the object of Dr. Beddoes's own volumes, and that of the writings which he condemns. It appears, however, to consist in this circumstance, that the author proposes only to teach the public the method by which they may preserve their health; while these 'hucksters in medicine,' as they are not unaptly styled, pretend to give directions how it

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may be restored. These objects, however, if not absolutely identical, are so closely connected, that we cannot see how they are to be kept asunder. Presisely the same kind of knowlege is applicable to both cases; the same kind of prejudices prevails on both subjects; and the same theories have been employed to regulate as well the prevention as the cure of disease.

After having descanted on the folly of teaching medicine to the unprofessional, and the danger of permitting this art to be practised by any but the most expert, the author launches out into a philippic against the influence of wealth and luxury on the minds and constitutions of the civilized nations of Europe, and particularly on the inhabitants of our own island. He enlarges on the fatal effects produced, not only on the lower orders of society, who are doomed to unhealthy occupations for the purpose of manufacturing the articles of luxury, but likewise on the refined classes, who, in obedience to the laws of fashion, are subjected to restraints scarcely less unfavourable to their health or comfort.

The second essay is dedicated 'to the ministers of religion of every denomination.' The author points out to them how usefully they might employ a part of that influence which they possess over the minds of the public, by impressing on them a due attention to the means of preserving health; and the same topic is again introduced in the conclusion of this essay. We do not, however, conceive that the appeal is likely to produce the desired effect; for the subject is treated with a degree of levity, we may almost add in iecorum, which is little calculated to gain their confidence, or ensure their co-operation.

Having in the first two essays stated his design and general plan of procedure, Dr. B. commences his operations in the 3d essay by an attack on girls' schools. He appears for some time to have had this object in view, and has accordingly been in the habit of making specific inquiries on those points which might be supposed to have the greatest influence on the health of the pupils. He particularly directed his attention to the articles of diet, temperature, exercise, and cloathing; on all of which he conceives that he has detected great deficiencies. In order to obtain the most complete information on the subject, and to remove every imputation of inaccuracy, Dr. Beddoes has either procured in writing, or taken down from the mouth of the person whom he was questioning, a relation of the most important circumstances. Some of these histories are given in detail. They agree so nearly with each other, and correspond so far with our own ideas on the subject, that we conceive it to be impossible not to acknowlege that the system usually adopted for the education of females is

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in many respects essentially injurious to their present comfort, and lays the foundation of weakness and disease. We cannot, however, agree with the Doctor in the severe insinuations which he throws out against the conductors of these schools; and we are of opinion that some of those practices, which he the most severely condemns, have originated rather from an erroneous judgment, than from the motives to which he imputes them. Simplicity in diet has, we think, been frequently carried to an injurious excess, by those who were the most anxious for the welfare of their pupils; in consequence of the erroneous though very general prejudice, that rich food contaminates the blood, and generates impure humours which can only be removed by abstinence. In the same way, some persons, who are laudably anxious to *harden* the constitutions of young persons, have deemed it necessary to keep them exposed to a low temperature; in observance, perhaps, of some theory concerning the relaxing effect of heat. These, and other similar notions, were not merely the speculations of the vulgar, but were the prevailing theories of the learned, or were directly deducible from them; and they have probably been adopted to the fullest extent by those who were the most attentive perusers of treatises on health, and were the most anxious to become acquainted with the principles of animal œconomy. Happily, these hypotheses are banished from the writings of the modern physiologist, and are hourly losing their influence over the minds of the public.

We deem it a favourable circumstance for the rising generation, that both the physical and the moral ideas on the subject of education are every day becoming more liberal; the system of restraint and severity, and the little attention that was paid to the inclinations and feelings of the pupils, must have been equally unfavourable to the growth of the mental and the bodily powers. Many of the evils of which Dr. Beddoes complains most loudly, and with most justice, must be remedied by this gradual change; and notwithstanding the absurd notions which fashion or caprice may occasionally introduce, we look forwards with some confidence to a state of permanent improvement.

Besides the more weighty evils that have been already pointed out, the author inveighs with much energy against the excessive attention which is paid to music; not only as engrossing too large a portion of time, but as producing injurious effects on the health. In that spirit of *vivid representation*, which forms so distinguished a trait in Dr. Beddoes's writings, he says; 'those who are not acquainted with particular facts—that is, who pronounce without any sort of evidence—may smile.

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smile. But I will not suppress my suspicion, that the largest pack of hounds we have, turned out *mad* upon the country, might possibly have committed less ravage, than that rage for excelling in music, which, of late years, we have seen invading families, and imposing the necessity of such strictness of application upon the girls.'

In a strain of invective equally vehement, though more appropriate to the magnitude of the evil, the author declaims against 'fashionable dress.'

'Many women, in the morning, muffle themselves up to the chin and ears, and go about half naked all evening, braving disease and death. The cold of our climate is sufficient annually to cut down thousands of females, who, having been tenderly brought up, will not guard themselves by sufficient covering against it. But the ladies are not content with the havoc, committed in this manner. Among death-bed confessions, I have heard of a practice of *damping* the cobweb garments, which otherwise would hang about the limbs too loosely. By this means, the killing rigour of an inclement atmosphere, is most materially assisted. The desire of obtaining a celebrity, equal to that of some monuments of antient art, which have been lately transferred to Paris, appears to me quite as good a reason for risquing life, as many of those, which have conferred mortality on the adventurers. But the beautiful followers of the *attitude* or *statue* fashion unfortunately do not stiffen into figures like the Venus de Medicis, or like what they would themselves be in good health. The state, to which they are often reduced, is one from which every one turns away with horror, except the stealer of dead bodies and the dissector.'

The same observation may apply to the idea entertained of modern novels:

'The common love-stories are justly regarded as abominable. They relax soul and body at once.—But there is a class of novels—the mushroom growth of the present unhappy age—undeservedly considered with more favour. Certain projectors, totally unacquainted with the data for calculating individual happiness, set about to draw up schemes for the happiness of nations. These schemes were received with clamorous applause by second rate reformers, as shallow and presumptuous as their principals. The principals by degrees incurred universal odium or contempt; and were deserted by their satellites. From the dead and putrid carcases, however, of their conceptions, there has issued a swarm of novels, as noisome as the mass by which they were engendered. The authors of these novels rank among the basest flatterers of corrupt opinion. They are clumsy enough to be obliged to overcharge what they decry; and manage their ridicule so, as to recommend existing abuses, not less baneful than any crudely concerted plans for innovation.'

In the 4th essay, the author enters on the consideration of boys' schools, and treats the mode in which they are usually managed with scarcely less severity than he exercised in the

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last chapter on schools for the female sex. The plan, almost universally adopted, of keeping the pupils confined for several hours in succession to a sedentary employment, is strongly censured by Dr. B. He considers it as a relic of monastic discipline, and as having been first practised by the monks, under whose direction the education of youth was for the most part conducted, in conformity with their general system of restraint and mortification. Without entering into any discussion respecting the origin of the custom, we agree with the author that it is on many accounts objectionable; and we must the more deeply lament its general prevalence, when we bear in mind that the particular branches of learning, for the attainment of which such sacrifices are made, prove, in a majority of cases, of little future value to the possessor. We think, indeed, that Dr. Beddoes greatly magnifies the extent of the evils produced by this system of vexatious restrainst; yet we concur with him in the principle, and approve of his concluding admonition:

'Take care that your children be not frequently subject to depression—and with despondency let them be entirely unacquainted. If they have small difficulties to struggle with at first; and if the contention be short; their resolution will be strengthened by the proximity of the prize, and they will be able to comprehend the causes of failure and success.'

Other practices injurious to health are enumerated, and exposed with much energy of language. The suggestions of the author are certainly deserving of serious attention: but we are decidedly of opinion that some of the topics, on which he most enlarges, are of too delicate a nature to be thus openly obtruded on the public eye.—He concludes with a 'sketch of the principles, according to which a healthy school can alone be established.' A scrupulous attention to every circumstance, which can improve the constitution of the pupils, forms a prominent feature of the plan: but, for reasons which will be sufficiently obvious to our readers, we cannot coincide with the Doctor in the supposed necessity of the preceptor uniting the studies of the physician to those of his own profession. The other parts of the sketch do not admit of much animadversion; the outline only is marked out; and the more minute details, on the arrangement of which the ultimate success of such schemes must in a great measure depend, are not introduced.

The 5th essay treats 'on temperature and hardiness, with remarks on diet.' It commences with an account of the effects of temperature on infants, a subject of undoubted importance, and on which we believe that many fatal and erroneous notions are

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are almost universally prevalent. Dr. B. paints in strong colours the numerous evils which await this period of our existence, but he consoles us with the idea that they are not irremediable:

'What subject of contemplation is more melancholy than the uncertainty of life during its first stage? What oftener intrudes upon the purest and most placid domestic enjoyments, than the alarming recollection of this uncertainty? What plunges families into deeper distress than the occurences, from which it is deduced by political arithmeticians? It seems, however, clear that the knowledge and application of a few simple principles, would prevent the greatest part of this alarm and distress. Of two equal lots of infants I do not entertain the smallest doubt but the mortality would be less by half, in that where these principles should be steadily followed.'

We are somewhat less sanguine than Dr. Beddoes.—We next meet with some very pointed remarks on the impropriety of immersing infants (particularly such as are delicate) in cold water, for the purpose of *hardening* them. To increase the power of the body in resisting external impressions is one of the most important objects, to which the attention of a parent can be directed: but we agree with the present author in thinking that a wrong system has generally been adopted:

'It was observed, that many persons, accustomed to be buffetted by storms, so much exceed the inactive fire-side *tenderling* in spirit, vigour and health, as to have a fair claim to be deemed a superior variety of the human species. The effect of certain cold mediums in giving hardness to some inanimate bodies, and in bracing others, or bringing their parts closer together, was joined to the preceding observation. It was also evident to feeling, that the stoutest men have their muscles most braced, or most capable of resisting compression.'

From these circumstances, arose the idea that, in order to produce a robust constitution, nothing more was necessary than to expose the child to a sufficient degree of cold. Perhaps in some few cases this may have had the desired effect: but in the majority, we have no doubt, irreparable mischief has ensued. We perfectly coincide with the author that 'long continued and repeated chills will in the first instance enfeeble, and in the second bring on a susceptibility of the powers, that superinduce violent diseases.'

We have noticed above the bad effects that are supposed to be produced on infants, by cold bathing injudiciously employed; and Dr. B. is afterward led to consider the danger that frequently ensues from the indiscriminate recommendation of this practice at a more advanced age. The length of time during which boys at school remain immersed in cold water, and the almost universal custom of bathing in the sea,

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as it is now employed in all states of the body, even by people labouring under great debility, are reprobated as laying the foundation of many dangerous complaints. All these circumstances, which tend to diminish the temperature, are but the more to be deprecated because the prevailing modes of life, particularly among the higher classes, are in many respects extremely debilitating.

While treating on this subject, it was impossible not to advert to the prevalence of catarrh in this country; a complaint which is become serious by its frequency, and is often the forerunner of the most fatal diseases. The variableness of our climate undoubtly forms the basis for these affections: but their attacks are rendered more frequent and more violent by our injudicious modes of life, and especially by the construction of our habitations, and the peculiarities of our dress. The excessive warmth of our rooms and the thinness of our cloathing augment the effects of those variations of temperature, which are far more prejudicial than a greater degree of either heat or cold more uniformly applied; and the general substitution of cotton for woollen, though conducive to cleanliness and elegance, has probably had an unfavourable effect on the health.

We are next taught 'how to escape the common diseases from variation of temperature,' and are, in the first place, led to a disquisition respecting the nature of catarrh. Dr. Beddoes adopts in its fullest extent the theory of Brown; which he dignifies with the name of a 'discovery that deserves to be regarded as one of the most ingenious and happy combinations ever formed by the human mind, and in relation to these islands as perhaps eventually the most useful, recorded in the annals of medicine.' We apprehend that few of our scientific readers will assent to this enthusiastic and unqualified encomium: but the merits of the Brunonian doctrine, and of this particular part of it, have been so frequently discussed, that we conceive it unnecessary to enter at large on the question in this place. We believe that the authority, which it had acquired at one time, over the public mind, is daily declining; and that, at present, few men of observation will be found to sanction its leading principles,—much less many of those practical inferences which have been rashly deduced from it. In the present instance, we do not perceive that Dr. Beddoes has introduced any new arguments in proof of his opinion respecting the origin and nature of the disease; nor any new directions for its prevention and cure: except, indeed, where he recommends that a person labouring under catarrh should remain up a whole night, in order to avoid the heat of the bed cloaths, which must necessarily be 'unfavourable in inflammatory diseases.'

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This is certainly a most complete triumph of theory over experience.

[*To be continued.*]

ART. II. *A Statistical and Historical Inquiry into the Progress and Magnitude of the Population of Ireland.* By Thomas Newenham, Esq., Author of several Political Tracts relative to Ireland. 8vo. pp. 358. 8s. Boards. C. and R. Baldwin. 1805.

IF it was observed with too much justice by high authority*, that there was no country in Europe of which the English were more ignorant than of Ireland, we hope that this reproach is rapidly wearing out; and that the period is quickly approaching, in which we shall not be liable to it in any degree. With the laudable view of promoting so desirable an object, Mr. Newenham composed the work before us; in which the best motives and very creditable industry are displayed.

In his introductory chapters, Mr. N. enumerates the physical and local felicities which distinguish Ireland; such as its salubrious atmosphere, its mild temperature, its rich and healthy soil, its favourable position, its fine rivers and admirable harbours, and the other conveniences which induced early observers to pronounce that island capable of excelling in population, wealth, and power. The effects of the envious policy of England, in counteracting the benign intentions of nature, are stated next in order. Even the liberal Davenant, who had meditated deeply on the subject of political economy, expressed a wish to divert the people of Ireland from attempting to extend their trade too much abroad; *a point which*, he says, *is not to be slighted.* He desires that the principal part of their dealings may be confined to this kingdom; which, for many reasons of state, he supposes, will be best and safest for England. In the same spirit, is the language of another eminent character, as quoted by Mr. N.

'Sir William Temple, in his letter on the advancement of trade in Ireland, written, in 1673, to the Earl of Essex, the then Lord Lieutenant of that country, says, "regard must be had to those points wherein the trade of Ireland comes to interfere with any main branches of the trade of England: in which cases the encouragement of such trade ought to be either declined or moderated, and so give way to the interest of trade in England." Speaking of the wool of Ireland, he says, "the improvement of this commodity by manufactures in this kingdom would give so great a

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* The late Earl of Clare.

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damp to the trade of England that it seems not fit to be encouraged here."

'Such were the sentiments of eminent political writers and persons of considerable influence in the councils of England: And the different acts relative to the trade of Ireland fully evince the ascendancy which a spirit of commercial jealousy had acquired in the legislature of the former country. By one act, the exportation of woollen manufactures to England was prohibited. By another, the exportation of fullers' earth to Ireland was prohibited, in order to throw a damp on the woollen manufactures there. By another, the exportation of wool from Ireland to England was restrained: an act, which, as Sir Matthew Decker observed, proved in the end infinitely serviceable to the woollen manufactures of France. By others, the exportation of wool and woollen manufactures from Ireland to any part of the world was obstructed. By another, the exportation of cattle to England was prohibited: an act, which as Sir William Temple predicted, gave rise to the beef trade of Ireland; which it was not then in the contemplation of the British legislature to encourage. By another, a direct trade to the British plantations was prohibited: a trade for which Ireland is singularly well circumstanced, her vessels, as Lord Sheffield remarks, often crossing the Atlantic in a shorter time than the ships of London require to clear the channel. Duties of various natures, embargoe, &c. &c. all in compliance with the paralysing spirit of commercial jealousy which prevailed, operated in conjunction with these statutes, to confine the trade of Ireland within the narrowest limits: to preclude the establishment, or at least effectually to check the growth of manufactures in that unfortunate country.

'Thus circumstanced, during near three-fourths of the last century, was the trade of Ireland: the trade of a country, confessedly, endowed with every physical requisite and advantage for foreign and domestic commerce; qualified, in the opinion of the sagacious Sir William Temple, to be one of the richest countries in Europe. "These circumstances," says he, "(political ones) so prejudicial to the increase of trade and riches in a country, seem natural, or at least to have ever been incident to the government here; and without them, the native fertility of the soil and seas in so many rich commodities, improved by a multitude of people and industry, with the advantage of so many excellent havens, and a situation so commodious for all foreign trade, must needs have rendered this kingdom one of the richest in Europe, and made a mighty increase both of strength and revenue to the crown of England." Thus circumstanced was the trade of a country, of which the intelligent Mr. Browne speaks in the following manner; "Ireland is, in respect to its situation, the number of its commodious harbours, and the natural wealth which it produces, the fittest island to acquire riches of any in the European seas; for as by its situation it lies the most commodious for the West-Indies, Spain, and the northern and east countries, so it is not only supplied by nature with all the necessaries of life, but can over and above export large quantities to foreign countries, insomuch that had it been mistress of a free trade, no nation in Europe of its extent could in an equal number of years acquire greater wealth."

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The author infers a progress in Irish agriculture from the increased exportation of corn; which continued nearly progressive till it was checked by the unsettled state of the government, and the prevalence of disaffection which recently diffused itself through that kingdom. The jealousy of England is apparent, says Mr. N. from its having discountenanced the tillage bill, which was intended to oblige the farmer to lay out in arable land five in every hundred acres. The landlords of Ireland coincided in this measure with the views of the British government; and they procured the abolition of the tythe of agistment, which operated as a negative premium in favour of pasturage.

When discussing the subject of the draining which the population of Ireland has undergone in modern times, the author relates, as facts tolerably well ascertained, that, between 1691 and 1745, that is, in the space of 54 years, 200,000 men emigrated to America and the West Indies; that, during the same period, an equal number passed over into England; while, according to the Abbé Geoghegan, 450,000 Irishmen died in the service of France. This latter number we must regard as exceeding the truth, though the present writer asserts that there is no reason for this suspicion.

Illustrating the great spring which belongs to population in the sister island, Mr. Newenham thus remarks:

'If the political situation of the great majority of the Irish people was miserable in the extreme, during about three-fourths of the last century: if the trade of Ireland was so fettered, and the tillage of that country so confined, during nearly the same space of time, as not to afford adequate employment to the labouring part of the community: if, in consequence of these distressing circumstances, multitudes withdrew from their native country: and if nevertheless, the population did, as it is known to have done, increase with considerable celerity; must we not consider ourselves as completely dispossessed of all fit grounds for surprise at its having increased, with signal rapidity, since the removal of every obstacle to its progress; the different causes of its increase still continuing to operate with unabated energy?'

The reader who is acquainted with the mathematical precision with which Mr. Malthus has treated the subject of population, and with the comprehensive view of it which his work embraces, will probably consider the observations which are made in these pages as comparatively desultory; and the respectable author justly regrets his not having seen the performance of Mr. M. till this part of his volume had been finished.—In repelling objections grounded on the returns of the collectors of hearth-money, Mr. N. reveals to us some curious secrets respecting the mode in which the Irish revenues have been heretofore collected. He gives a most flattering picture of the situation

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situation of Ireland, during the short period which intervened between 1782 and 1788. He is of opinion that, in Ireland, population has been rapidly increasing ever since the revolution; and that of late years it has advanced with accelerated speed. He estimates the loss of lives in the rebellion as not exceeding 15,000; and that occasioned by the war of the revolution, including those who died or were killed as well in the army as the navy, at 120,000 Irish Catholics, and 10,000 Irish Protestants. He supposes the average of the annual increase of population in Ireland to be 91,448 souls; and he asserts that two-thirds of the disposable force of the empire are Irish. The national debt of Ireland is here stated at upwards of 53 millions, of which more than 43 millions have been incurred since the rebellion! In examining the actual state of agriculture, of exports and imports, and comparing it with that of preceding periods, Mr. N. satisfactorily proves his main position respecting the increase of population in the sister-country.

It has been frequently mentioned that the Catholic gains over the Protestant population; and the present author not only corroborates the fact, but thus accounts for it:

'Experience has proved that religious sects, instead of being exterminated have, for the most part, been extended by persecution. A knowledge of human nature, and of the peculiar discipline of the church of Rome, will leave no doubt on our minds that the Roman Catholic religion is of all others, the most likely to thrive in a state of proscription. And a little reflection on the history of Ireland will convince us, that the circumstances of that country have been peculiarly favourable to the extension of the persecuted religion.

'The different natures of the sources, moreover, from whence the Roman Catholic and Protestant clergy derive their respective incomes, seem likely to have had the effects of increasing the zeal of the former in the work of proselytism, and, as far as worldly considerations could, abating that of the latter: and an abatement of such zeal must necessarily have facilitated the advancement of the Roman Catholic on the Protestant religion, even though the latter had always been as powerfully supported and exalted as it now is by the erudition, the abilities, the benevolence, the decorous conduct, and the unaffected piety for which great numbers of the Irish Protestant clergy, and especially their prelates, are confessedly conspicuous.

'Besides associations, friendships, alliances, and a variety of cogent considerations must, at all times, have greatly conduced to forward the conversion of a comparative small number of Protestants, of the lower and middle classes, scattered among multitudes of Roman Catholics; while similar preparatory circumstances and inducements could not have facilitated the conversion of Roman Catholics, if even the Protestant clergy had been as assiduous as the Roman Catholic clergy were; because, in no district, of any considerable extent, were the Roman Catholics so far out-numbered by the Protestants, as the latter

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latter were by the former, in most parts of the three provinces before mentioned.

'When a proscribed, or merely tolerated religion greatly exceeds the established one, in point of numerical strength, the ordinary causes of the extension of the former will always be effectually aided by the concurrent operation of many others.

'That the Roman Catholic religion, under its present circumstances, will continue to gain ground on the Protestant religion, in Ireland, is I think indisputable. The increasing wealth of the country, it is true, annually raises up a considerable number of individuals, from the middle classes of the community, consisting at present, in the three provinces before-mentioned, chiefly of Roman Catholics, to the higher ones, consisting almost wholly of Protestants. But we find instances of conversion among the wealthy Roman Catholics, notwithstanding their association with Protestants, extremely rare. They look to the attainment of much greater political weight by adhering to, than by forsaking the religion of their ancestors. By the former, they expect to stand among the leaders of a most powerful party; by the latter, they perceive that they must rely on their talents and good fortune alone for future political distinction.

'As for the lower orders of the Roman Catholics, not the slightest hope of converting them can now be entertained. Whatever ground the Roman Catholic has, in reality, gained upon the Protestant religion in Ireland, such ground, I have not the smallest doubt, will not merely be maintained, but enlarged, at least so long as the principal efficient causes of the extension of the former religion continue to operate.'

Ireland, it is calculated, contains 13½ millions of square acres, of which 18 parts in 19 may be rendered fertile; since the country every where abounds with lime, marl, and other manures. On the supposition that the natives will continue to subsist on their present diet, the author endeavours to shew that Ireland is capable of supporting eight millions of inhabitants: but he adds;

'Should increasing wealth gradually introduce a change in that mode of living which now obtains among the more numerous classes of the people of Ireland, the farther increase of population, as far as it depends on food, would be but little impeded by such an event. Ireland lies open to the four quarters of the world. Its seas may be navigated throughout the year. Its coasts may for the most part be approached with safety in the most tempestuous weather. It is every where indented by secure harbours, there being no fewer than sixty-six in a circuit of about 750 miles*. Noble rivers already navigable, or

* *Bays, Harbours, Havens, &c. which afford safe anchorage for* LARGE SHIPS OF WAR—Cork, Crook-haven, Beer-haven, Bantry, Shannon, Galway, Ballinakiel, Killery, Newport, Blacksod, Broad-haven, Sheep-haven, Lough Swilly, Lough Foyle—*For* FRIGATES, —Belfast,

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or which may be rendered so, intersect it in all parts. Canals may be cut through it in all directions, without exhausting, as in other countries, that supply of water which is requisite for many other useful purposes. Smooth and durable roads may be, and indeed are made, in every district however comparatively unfrequented, at an inconsiderable expence. In short, it presents such facilities for an importation and quick transportation of provisions throughout its whole extent, as are not to be found in any other country in Europe, Holland perhaps excepted; and such as effectually guarantee it against the mischiefs resulting from a population disproportionate to internal means of subsistence; and thereby extend the ordinary limits of the increase of people.'

The benevolent, liberal, and patriotic spirit, which breathe throughout the whole of this volume, is strikingly displayed in the concluding paragraph:

'A due consideration of the various facts which have been brought into view in the foregoing pages cannot, it is presumed, fail to impress every reader with the vast and increasing importance of Ireland in the political scale of the British empire: and to excite in every good, loyal, and patriotic man, the utmost solicitude for the continuance of internal tranquillity in that country, manifestly qualified to furnish, in the greatest abundance, the means of sustaining the power of the United Kingdom amidst the momentous changes which Europe seems likely to undergo.

'The recollection of recent events, accompanied by reflection on the nature and inveteracy of those principles of disunion, which have hitherto so frequently had the effects of blasting the growing prosperity of Ireland, and rendering it one of the most vulnerable parts of the British dominions, may create despondency in some. For my part, I think there are considerations which strongly tend to excite sensations of a very different nature.

'Surely Irishmen, of all sects, have sufficiently experienced the diversified mischiefs of religious animosity; and must languish for its

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—Belfast, Carrickfergus, Strangford, Dublin, Waterford, Kinsale, Baltimore, Long Island Sound, Dunmanus, Kenmare, Killala, Sligo, Donegal, Killybegs, the Rosses, Mulroy, Carlingford.——*For* MERCHANTS SHIPS,—Racklin Island, Malahide, Wicklow, Wexford, Dungarvan, Youghall, Oyster haven, Courtmacksherry, Glandore, Castle Townsend, Ballinskellicks, Valentia, Dingle, Ventry, Tralee, Arran Island, Castle bay, Greatman's bay, Kilkerran, Cuskeen, Berterbui, Roundstonebay, Ardbear, Claggan, Boffin Island, Rathfron, Milk harbour, Ballyshannon, Tilen, Croit Island, Inishmahon, Inhisboffin, Strabegg, the Skerries, Drogheda.

For large Ships of War.... 14
For Frigates..... 17
For Merchant Ships..... 35

Total..... 65,

besides 24 places, where ships may find shelter in bad weather.'

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utter and final extinction. Surely Irishmen of all parties have had sufficient reason to lament the calamitous effects of internal feuds and commotions. Surely Irishmen have no longer to learn that dark, foul, and treasonous conspiracies, confederacies, and alliances, not only involve individual ruin, but induce political imbecility, national poverty, humiliation, and subjection: and that industry, civilization, internal tranquillity, and alacrity in maintaining the authority of the laws, while they must necessarily be productive of the happy effects, of drawing over a large proportion of British capital, ingenuity, and experience, and eventually giving additional and lucrative employment to thousands, are the *true and only means* whereby Ireland can attain that enviable pre-eminence which nature has qualified her to enjoy. Surely Irishmen are prepared to admit that, although the late political system of their country did undoubtedly supply the means of rendering it conspicuous amongst the nations of Europe, yet that, under an equitable and well cemented union, the sister islands cannot fail to experience the highest possible commercial and political advantages, mutually enriching, strengthening, and aggrandizing each other. Surely Irishmen must derive some consolation from the thought of their country's having become, after ages of political depression and turmoil, a prominent and most influential part of a vast empire, distinguished by an unprecedented combination of exalting circumstances; by great and increasing opulence, high martial renown, undisturbed internal repose, and perfect civil liberty, enjoyed by all ranks and descriptions of the community: an empire possessing the means of becoming irresistible; and much more likely to endure than any which has ever existed.

'Surely Irishmen must perceive that while, on the one hand, it is demonstrably inconsistent with the real welfare of their country to urge any factious, frivolous, unfounded, or unnecessary claim; it is, on the other, no less so with that of England to withhold any benefit which Ireland may acquire a right to enjoy. Surely Irishmen may find grounds for being persuaded that the statesmen of the United Kingdom, sensible of the vast real importance of Ireland, will ever be disposed to investigate promptly, patiently, and minutely the grievances and claims of that country; to redress the former if real, and admit the latter if well founded, and notified in the temperate, cautious, steady, and becoming manner which accords with the spirit of the British constitution, and corresponds to the dictates of political wisdom.'

Mr. Newenham calculates that each Irish square mile has a population of 197 persons, being 8 more than in England, which makes that of the whole island amount to 5,400,000; of these he supposes the Protestants not to amount to more than 1,080,000, which makes the Catholics to be to the Protestants as 4 to 1. We do not consider the data, which give this great majority, as satisfactorily established. Sir William Petty calculated that the Catholics were in his time as 8 to 3. The war of the revolution indeed reduced this proportion; and

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it appears by the return made to the Irish House of Lords in 1731, that the number of Catholics was not at that period as 2 to 1. It would follow, then, if Mr. Newenham were well founded in his calculation, which we presume cannot be the case, that the Catholics must have more than doubled their proportion in 70 years.

ART. III. *Anecdotes of the English Language:* chiefly regarding the local Dialect of London and its Environs; whence it will appear that the Natives of the Metropolis and its Vicinities have not corrupted the Language of their Ancestors; in a Letter from Samuel Pegge, Esq. F.S.A., to an old Acquaintance and Co-fellow of the Society of Antiquaries, London. 8vo. pp. 325. 6s. Boards. Nichols, Rivingtons, &c.

PHILOLOGY offers few subjects more curious than the history of the English language; which has been derived from various sources, has received numerous admixtures in its progress, has been the sport of whim and caprice, and is at present far from being completely grammaticized. The late ingenious Mr. Pegge amused himself, and will doubtless amuse his readers, while, under a feigned zeal for the credit of the common London or cockney dialect, he discussed the awkward state of our language at a period not very remote from the present day, and adduced written authorities, of no mean rank, to justify expressions which are now regarded as evidences of vulgarity and want of education. With much grave humour, he pleads the cause of 'old, unfortunate, and discarded *words* and *expressions*, which are now turned out to the world at large by persons of education, (without the smallest protection,) and acknowleged only by the humbler orders of mankind; who seem charitably to respect them as decayed Gentlefolks that have known better days;' and he insists that those modes of speech, which Dr. Johnson treated with so much contempt as mere "colloquial barbarisms," claim respect on account of their pedigree, though not for the company which they are now forced to keep. Formerly, these were of good repute; and though they be now melted down and modernized by our present literary refiners, the cockney evinces his partiality to the old family language, and is not ashamed of being some centuries behind the present fashion. Cockneys, then, are intitled to some favor from an Antiquary, and their dialect will supply him with food adapted to his taste.

In order to manifest his *profound* respect for the Cockney, Mr. Pegge endeavours to rescue this appellation from the ludicrous etymology of those who explain it to be compounded of *cock* and

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and *neigh*, and who in justification of this derivation tell a story of a true born Londoner, who being in the country, and *rerum rusticarum prorsus ignarus*, exclaimed on hearing a horse neigh, "How the horse *laughs!*" but being informed that the noise was called neighing, and in the morning hearing a cock crow, he cried out, "how the *cock neighs!*" Mr. P. leaves those who may be so inclined to indulge a *horse-laugh* on this occasion, and proceeds, after having expressed himself dissatisfied with former conjectures, to solace his brother antiquary with the semblance of an etymon:

'The French (he says) have an old appropriated verb (not to be met with in the modern Dictionaries - but you will find it in Cotgrave, viz.) "*Coqueliner un enfant*," to *fondle* and *pamper* a child. The participle passive of this verb will therefore be "*Coqueliné*," which by no great violence may, I think, be reduced to "*Coquené*;" for in pronunciation, the penultimate syllable (*li*) will easily melt in the mouth, and accord, in our spelling, with the word *Cockney*.'

This *fondled* creature is so much Mr. Pegge's darling, that he will not permit the fashionable world to abuse him as they have done. The sneering Courtier is reminded that the dialect in use among the citizens, within the sound of *Bow-bell*, is that of antiquity; and that 'the *Cockneys* who content themselves with the received language and pronunciation which has descended to them unimpaired and unaugmented through a long line of ancestry, have not corrupted their native tongue, but are in general luckily right, though upon unfashionable principles.' These peculiarities of expression, the *shibboleths* of the common citizens, are here termed *Londonisms*.

For some of the modes of pronunciation employed by the Cockneys, the author attempts no defence; thinking that it is better to throw them on the mercy of the court: but he artfully endeavours, before he leaves them to their fate, in this respect, to put a smile on the countenances of their judges.

'After all, the most striking and most offensive error in pronunciation amongst the Londoners, I confess, lies in the transpositional use of the letters W, and V, ever to be heard where there is any possibility of inverting them. Thus they always say,

'*Weal* instead of *veal*; and

'*Winegar*, instead of *vinegar*;

while on the other hand, you hear

'*Vicked*, for *wicked*—

'*Vig*, for *wig*; and a few others.

'The following little dialogue is said to have passed between a citizen and his servant:

'Citizen. Villiam, I vants my vig.

'Servant. Vitch vig, Sir?

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'Citizen. Vy, the vite vig in the vooden vig-box, vitch I vore last Vensday at the westry.

'To these may be added their use of the letter W, in the place of the letter H, in compound words; for, instead of neighbour*hood*, widow*hood*, lively*hood*, and knight*hood*, they not only say, but would even write, neighbour*wood*, widow*wood*, lively*wood*, and knight*wood*. Nay, they have been caught in the fact; for the last of these words is so spelt in Dr. Fuller's Church History, and in Rymer's Fœdera. This oversight cannot, however, be charged upon either of those writers; but, as they both lived in or near London, it is most probable that their amanuenses were first-rate *Cockneys*, and that, in collating the transcripts by the ear, allowances had been made for mere pronunciation without suspecting error in the orthography.

'All that can be said upon these unpleasant pronunciations taken together is, that letters of the same organ of speech have been mutually exchanged in several languages. In the province of Gascoigne in France, the natives substitute the letters B, and V, for each other, which occasioned Joseph Scaliger to say of them—"Felices Populi, quibus *bib*ere est *viv*ere."

If this learned antiquary does not think it worth his while to rescue the Londoner's peccadillos of pronunciation, yet of his ordinary words and expressions he sets up a bold defence. The use of redundant negatives, in "I don't know nothing about it," or "Worser and more worser;" and "Mought" for might—"Ax" for ask—"Fetch a walk"—"Learn" for teach—"Shall us"—"Summons'd" for summon'd.—"a-dry"—"His-self" for himself, and "theirselves" for themselves—"This here," "that there"—"Because why"—"Ourn, Yourn, Hern, Hisn"—"A few while"—"Com'd" for came—"Gone with," "went with,"—"gone dead"—have more said in their favour than Cockneys themselves would suppose; and the sneer of the *beau monde* is rebutted by the sanction of respectable men, who gave the *ton* to our great, great grandfathers. In some instances, indeed, the Cockney appears, without perhaps being conscious of it, to have kept nearer to the true etymology, and to have more closely followed the genius of our language than even the Courtier. Let the matter, however, turn out as it may; by thus adverting to their etymology, which is in fact, as Mr. Pegge terms it, *the history of words*, and by considering their parentage, intermarriages, and collateral family-connections, we shall obtain some correct notions of the nature of our language, and be better enabled to perfect its grammar. The antiquary, in a difficult case, thus compromises the differences between the Courtier and the Cockney:

'His-

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'HIS-SELF for HIMSELF.
THEIR-SELVES for THEMSELVES, &c.

'A Courtier will say—"Let him do it *him*self;" but the Cockney has it,—"Let him do it *his*-self." Here the latter comes nearest to the truth, though both he and the Courtier are wrong; for the grammatical construction should be—"Let *he* do it *his* self,"—or, by a transposition of words, better and more energetically arranged—"Let *he his-self* do it." It must be allowed, that the Londoner does not use this compounded pronoun, in the mode before us, from any degree of conviction; he has fortunately stumbled upon a part of the truth which the Courtier has overleaped. But, throwing aside the correct phraseology, and confining ourselves to the received mode, let me observe how incongruous our combined pronoun appears in this situation. Of these double personal pronouns, as I may call them, the nominative in the singular number is *my* self, and not *me* self; and in the second person it is *thy* self, and not *thee*-self;—why then shall the accusative in the third person (viz. *him* self) be received in the Polite World, and by both the Universities, into the place of the nominative "*his*-self?" It is the same with us in the plural number; for we very conveniently, make the word "*them*selves" serve our purpose both in the nominative and in the accusative; while, on the other hand, the Cockney is right in his plural nominative "*their*-selves," and only errs when he uses the same word for the accusative.

'Dr. Johnson unguardedly, but very obligingly for me, admits "*his*-self" to have been *anciently* (though he goes but a very little way back for his authority) the nominative case of this double pronoun, and quotes the words of Algernon Sydney—"Every of us, each for *his*-self." Time will not subvert a real nominative case, however incongruously it may be abused; and I wonder that Dr. Johnson should doubt for a moment, and (as his word *anciently* implies) ever suppose otherwise.

'Dr. Wallis, who published his grammatical work in 1653, lays the charge of vulgarity upon the *Courtier*, and acquits the *Cockney*,—"Fateor tamen," says he, "*him* self et *them*selves vulgo dici pro *his*-self et *their*-selves."

'Now, Sir, this matter might, upon the whole, be brought to a very easy compromise, if the *Cockney* would but adopt the *Courtier's* "*them*-selves" for his accusative, and the *Courtier* would condescend to accept the *Cockney's* accusative "*their*-selves," instead of his own nominative "*them*-selves."

'The like exchange would as easily reconcile them in their uses of the singular number;—for let the *Courtier*, instead of saying "He came *him*self," use the *Cockney's* expression "He came *his*-self;" and on the other hand, in the place of "He hurt *his*-self," let the Cockney say (with the Courtier) "He hurt *him*self"—and all would be well, according to the present acceptation of these phrases, and these jarring interests be happily accommodated; but I am afraid that the obstinate and deep-rooted principles of education on one hand, and of habit on the other, must forbid the exchange.

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'I am sensible that it is accounted elegant and energetick language to use "*him*-self" nominatively when intended to enforce personality, as in the following two examples:

"*Him*self hasted also to go out."
"*Him*self an army."

'No one, I believe, will be hardy enough to vindicate this as grammar; but it is allowed in all arts to break through the trammels of rule to produce great effects.'

Mr. Pegge has so managed his defence of *Londonisms*, as not to controvert Quintillian's principle respecting language,—*Consuetudo sermonis est consensus eruditorum.*

In the *Additamenta*, are some judicious strictures on the Dictionary of Dr. Johnson; who, it is truly observed, not aware of the authenticity of dialectical expressions, has been guilty of many omissions, and blundered in his etymologies. Mr. Pegge is induced to believe that more may be said in support of the *Poticary* of the Cockney, than the *Apothecary* of the learned and fashionable world, which has usurped its place:

'APOTHECARY.

'Henry Knighton, who lived about 1393, had the word *Apothecarius*.

'Dr. Johnson says, from *Apotheca*, a repository: and that it means "a man whose employment is to keep medicines for sale; Greek Ἀποθηκη."

'Chaucer, who wrote before the introduction of Greek, writes "*Potecary*." Chaucer died in 1400. (N. B. Greek known in England, 1453.)

'In the Liber Niger Dom. Reg. Angliæ, temp. Edward IV. who reigned from 1461 to 1483, it is written *Poticary*.

'Stevens's Dictionary has *Boticario*, and derives it from *Bote*, a gallipot. *Botica* is a shop in Spanish (French *Boutique*), but emphatically the shop of an Apothecary.

'The *A* may be our article, which use has added to the word, together with the article *an*, which is a pleonasm.

'*Per contra*, we have appellatives, which by withdrawing a letter from the word *per aphæresin* in the article, has absorbed it, as—from *anaranja*, we have formed *an orange*.—*Avanna*, we call *a fan*, which should be termed *an avan*; from *Abeli*, we say *a lily*: so, by dropping the A entirely, we have made *saffron* from *assafran*: all from the Spanish. Not content to say *a Boticario*, or, Anglicè, *Boticary*, but we must double the article and say *an Aboticary*.

'Junius calls it *vocabulum sumptum ex Græco*; but adds, *minus commodè*; and refers us to Vossius, lib. I de Vitiis Sermonis, c. 32.

'Apothecaries anciently sold wine and cordials.

"The Emperor is somewhat amended, as his *Poticarie saith*."

'A Bookseller who keeps a shop (a *Bibliotheca*), might as well be called a *Bibliothecary*.

'Perhaps

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'Perhaps the *Poticary*, or *Boticario*, was so called, to distinguish him from the itinerant Medicine-monger; for I am willing to suppose there have been Quacks as long as there have been regular men in the profession of Physick.

'Apollo was little more than an Empiric; for it was one of his inferior occupations. Opifer *per orbem.* His son Æsculapius was a Physician.

'Q. If Apollo by the term *Opifer* was not a midwife? The Apothecaries proud of the connexion, by his figure in Dutch tile in their shops.

'In the Comedy of the Four P's, by J. Heywood, published 1569, one of them is the *Poticary*; and I never heard that he was arraigned by the Critics for Pseudography. They are the *Pothecary*, the *Pedlar*, the *Palmer*, and the *Pardoner*.

'Mr. Nares says, that *Potecary* is very low; and so it is to our ears at present.

'You might as well say that *periwig* is Greek, from Περι circum (Græcè), and *wig* (Anglicè); whereas it is only unfortunately a corruption of the French *peruque*.

'The *Boticario* (or Poticary) was perhaps to the *Quack*, who carried his medicines about for sale, as the *Stationer* (or shop-keeper) was to the Hawker and Pedlar.'

We have a hint, also, on the improper use of the words "*Compliments*," and "*wait upon*," by polite people:

'COMPLIMENTS

'Seem to mean *Comply-ments*, and therefore cannot be used in the first instance of an invitation; as it rather appears to be the language of the *Invité* than of the *Inviter*. A asks B to dine with him.—B returns for answer, that he will *comply* with A's invitation. *Compliments*, therefore, ought to be the cardinal word of Ceremony in the return, and not in the request.

"A good morrow morning to you;" an evening compliment, which I have heard made use of, as well as a morning one.

'WAIT UPON.

'The answer to an invitation from A to B is, that B will do himself the pleasure of *waiting* upon A. This is contrary to all the rules of etiquette; for A, at whose house the scene is to lie, is bound to *wait* upon B, his guest. I remember when the language was, that *A* should say to B, on inviting him to his house, "that he would be very happy to *wait* upon him in St. James's Square." Every man is to *wait* upon his *guests*, by himself, or his sufficient deputy, and not *they* upon *him*. In the first instance to *wait* means to *attend upon*: just the reverse of the French *attendre*, which signifies to wait *for*, or expect.'

Whether the fashionable world will take the hints here given by our deceased antiquary, to correct their expressions, and to guard against the perversion of grammar, we cannot pretend to say: but of this we are confident, that, if they read

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his essay, they will be amused by the playfulness of his verbal criticisms, and by the various anecdotes with which he has enlivened his pages.

ART. IV. *General Zoology, or Systematic Natural History*, by George Shaw, M.D. F.R.S., &c. With Plates from the first Authorities and most select Specimens, engraved principally by Mr. Heath. Vol. V. 2 Parts. pp. 463, ninety-six Plates. 2l. 12s. 6d. Boards. Kearsley. 1804.

THE first part of this volume includes the abdominal, and the second is occupied by the cartilaginous order of fishes. The genera belonging to the first are, according to Dr. Shaw's arrangement, *Cobitis*, *Anableps*, *Amia*, *Silurus*, *Platystacus*, *Loricaria*, *Salmo*, *Acanthonotus*, *Fistularia*, *Esox*, *Polypterus*, *Elops*, *Argentina*, *Atherina*, *Mugil*, *Exocœtus*, *Polynemus*, *Clupea*, *Cyprinus*, and *Mormyrus*. Thus, with the exception of *Teuthis*, which had been previously proscribed by Bloch and La Cépède, all the Linnéan genera are retained; while *Anableps*, *Platystacus*, and *Acanthonotus*, are introduced on the authority of Bloch, and *Polypterus* on that of Geoffroy. The characters of *Anableps* are, head sub-depressed, mouth terminal, teeth small, on the jaws, eyes protuberant, with double pupils, and gill-membrane six-rayed.—The only species is the *Tetrophthalmus*, or *Cobitis Anableps* of Linné. We fear that Dr. Shaw has too much compressed the interesting details furnished by Bloch, relative to this singular animal.

Among the species of *Siluri*, *Hertzbergii*, *nodosus*, *bimaculatus*, *quadrimaculatus*, *erythropterus*, *fossilis*, *vittatus*, and *atherinoides*, are adopted from Bloch. The *Electricus* might have furnished a longer article, and have included the substance of Geoffroy's excellent paper on this species of Silurus. Though its Galvanic power be weaker than that of the Torpedo, the organ in which this power resides completely invests the fish.

Platystacus is characterized by the habit of Silurus, the mouth beneath, bearded with cirri, the body scaleless and depressed, and the tail long and compressed. It includes *cotylephorus* and *lævus* (*Silurus aspredo* Lin.), *verrucosus* and *anguillaris*.

To prevent confusion, it is proper to intimate that the author's *Loricaria costata* corresponds to the *Silurus costatus* of Linné, *L. cataphracta* to *Silurus cataphractus*, *L. callichthys* to *S. callichthys*, and *L. accipense*, and *dentata*, to *L. cataphracta*. Dr. Shaw's *punctata*, or speckled Loricaria, is the *Cataphractus punctatus*

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punctatus of Bloch; a small but elegant species, and a native of the rivers of Surinam.

The Linnéan species of *Salmo* are all retained, except *Anastomos. Cyprinus dentex*, *Clupea sterniculus*, and *Clupea villosa*, are removed to the same genus; *phinoc* and *salmulus* are borrowed from Pennant; and *alpinus*, *tumbil*, *falcatus*, *fasciatus*, *Friderici*, *melanurus*, and *edentulus*, from Bloch. The *ode* of the latter is here designed *fulvus*.—The prolonged upper jaw of the *Lavaretus* might have convinced our discerning zoologist, that it is perfectly distinct from the Welsh Gwiniad. The characters which Pennant ascribes to the latter coincide with those of the *Salmo Wartmanni* of Gmelin and Bloch.

Acanthamotus is distinguished from *Salmo*, by an elongated body, destitute of a dorsal fin, and several spines on the back and abdomen. The only known species is the *nasus*, or *snouted*, a native of the East Indies.

Under *Esox* we find *Malabaricus* from Bloch, and *Chirocentrus*, *Chinensis*, *aureoviridis*, *becuna*, and *Cepedianus*, from La Cépède. The last mentioned author, who delights to multiply genera, includes the *Chinensis*, *aureoviridis*, and *becuna*, under *Sphyræna*, and the *Cepedianus* under *Lepisosteus*.

The interesting nature of the following article will sufficiently apologize for quoting it at length:

'POLYPTERUS. POLYPTERUS.

'*Generic Character.*

Membr: branch: uniradiata.	*Gill membrane* single-rayed.
Pinnæ dorsales numerosæ.	*Dorsal fins* numerous.

'NILOTIC POLYPTERUS.

Polypterus Niloticus. *P. viridis, abdomine nigro maculato.*
Green Polypterus, with the abdomen spotted with black.
Polyptere Bichir. *Geoffroy. Annales du Museum d'Histoire Naturelle*, 1. *p.* 57. *pl.* 5.

'The fish which constitutes this new and highly remarkable genus appears to have been first scientifically described by Mons. E. Geoffroy, who considers it as forming in some degree a connecting link between the osseous and the cartilaginous fishes. Mons. Geoffroy's observations relative to its form and nature may be found in the Work mentioned at the close of the specific character.

'In point of general affinity it seems most nearly allied to the genus Esox, and especially to those species which are furnished with large, strong and bony scales. Its shape is long and serpentiform, the body being nearly cylindrical: the head is defended by large bony pieces or plates, and the body covered with large and strong scales, very closely affixed to the skin, so that it may be considered as in some degree a mailed fish: the pectoral and ventral fins, but particularly the former, are attached by a sort of strong and scaly base or cubit, allowing the same kind of motion as in those of the genus *Lopius* among the cartilaginous

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nous fishes: the pectoral fins are placed immediately beyond the head; the ventral at a vast distance beyond it, the abdomen in this fish being of a very unusual length: the anal fin is seated at some distance beyond the ventral, very near the tail, and is of an ovate, but slightly pointed shape: the tail, which is rather small and short for the size of the animal, is of a rounded or ovate form, and consists only of soft, strait, articulated rays, so disposed in the membrane as to allow but little freedom of motion in this part: at a small distance beyond the head along the whole length of the back, runs a continued series of small dorsal fins, to the number of sixteen, seventeen, or eighteen, the number varying slightly in different individuals: each of these fins is of an ovate shape, upright, or but very slightly inclining backwards, and is furnished with a very strong spine at its base or origin, while the remaining part consists of four or five soft and branched rays, connected by their uniting membrane: the first or spiny ray, at about two thirds of its height from the base, sends off a small secondary point or spine: the lateral line commences at a small distance from the gill-covers, from which it slightly descends for a small space, and then runs strait to the tail: the eyes are small and round: the mouth of moderate width; the jaws furnished with a row of rather small and sharp teeth, and the upper lip with a pair of small and short tentacula at its tip: the vent is placed very near the tail, at the commencement of the anal fin: the branchial aperture is large, and in place of a membrane there is only a single bony plate or semicircular arch. The usual length of this fish is about eighteen inches, and its colour sea-green, paler or whitish on the abdomen, which is marked by some irregular black spots, more numerous towards the tail than towards the head: in the pectoral fins are usually about thirty-two rays; in the ventral twelve; in the anal fifteen; and in the tail nineteen. The stomach is long and large, measuring about four inches and a half; the liver long, and composed of two unequal lobes: the swimming bladder double, and loose: the ovaries long, and the eggs about the size of millet-seeds.

'This fish is known to the Egyptians by the name of *Bichir*, and is considered as a very rare animal: it is supposed in general to inhabit the depths of the Nile, remaining among the soft mud, which it is thought to quit only at some particular seasons, and is sometimes taken in the fishermen's nets at the time of the decrease of the river. It is said to be one of the best of the Nilotic fishes, having a white and savoury flesh; and as it is hardly possible to open the skin with a knife, the fish is first boiled, and the skin afterwards drawn off whole.'

The two species of *Atherina*, not included in Gmelin's edition of the *Systema Naturæ*, are, *Sihama*, and *Pinguis*; the first noticed by Forskal, and the second by La Cépède, from Commerson's MSS.—Owing to some oversight, here is an obvious confusion of the titles in the text and those which are given on the plates.

The additions to *Mullus* are, the *Malabaricus* from Russel, *Tang* and *Plumieri* from Bloch, and *Cæruleomaculatus* from La Cépède.

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Under *Exocœtus*, *Mesogaster* is quoted from Bloch, and *Commersonii* from La Cépède. The *non volitans* of Forskal is omitted, perhaps as a doubtful species. The *exiliens*, or Mediterranean flying-fish, is thus described:

'It is chiefly observed in the Mediterranean and Atlantic seas, where, according to an ingenious naturalist, "it leads a most miserable life: in its own element it is perpetually harassed by the Dorado and other fish of prey; and if it endeavours to avoid them by having recourse to the air, it either meets its fate from the Gull and the Albatross, or is forced down again into the mouth of the inhabitants of the water, which keep pace with its aerial excursion." This however ought to be considered as an exaggerated representation of the creature's state of existence, since, by the admirable balance ordained by Nature, the weaker animals have powers of escape in exact proportion to their danger*.

'It should be observed that this power of flight or temporary skimming through the air to a considerable distance, is not entirely confined to this genus, but takes place in some species of the genus Scorpæna, as well as in that of Trigla, &c. as the reader may perceive in recurring to the descriptions of those genera in the former part of the present work.

'The general length of the Mediterranean Flying-Fish is from twelve to fifteen or sixteen inches; and its general shape is not unlike that of a Herring: the body is subcylindrical, but with a slight approach to square, if a transverse section be supposed: the head is rather large, and sloping pretty suddenly in front: the mouth small, and edged on both jaws with minute, pointed teeth: the eyes large, and of a silver-colour with a cast of gold: the scales are large, thin, and rounded: the whole animal is of a bright silver cast, with a blue or dusky tinge on the upper part: the fins are also of a dusky colour: of these the pectoral extend as far as the beginning of the tail, and are of a sharply lanceolate form: the dorsal and anal fins are shallow, and placed opposite each other near the tail, which is deeply forked with sharp pointed lobes, of which the lower is nearly twice the length of the upper: the ventral fins are rather large, of a lengthened and pointed shape, and situated a little beyond the middle of the abdomen towards the anal fin: on each side of the lower part of the abdomen runs a kind-

'* To this purpose I may quote the observation of an ingenious gentleman (Capt. G. Tobin) who has had frequent opportunities of observing the habits of the Flying-Fish, and who thus expresses himself in a note annexed to a drawing of this species observed about the coasts of Otaheite. "The lower half of the tail, in the Flying-Fish, is full twice the length of the upper: the use of it has always appeared evident to me. I have by the hour watched the Dolphins and Bonitos in pursuit of them, when, without wholly immersing themselves, which would have proved fatal to them, they have disposed in their progressive motion the lower part of the tail in such a manner as to supply their wings with moisture, so as to support them above the surface. I never saw one exceed the distance of an hundred yards in its flight, without being obliged to dip for a fresh supply."

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of carina or lateral line formed by a series of small, inclining points, or spicules.

'This species is frequently observed in the Mediterranean, sometimes singly, and sometimes appearing in small shoals. Instances are not infrequent of its falling into ships during the decline of its flight. It is considered as an agreeable fish for the table, and by some is even preferred to the Herring. The general height at which it is observed to exercise its flight is about three feet above the surface of the water.'

In ascribing the frequent dipping of these springing fishes to the dryness of their fins, Dr. Shaw repeats the assertions of very respectable naturalists. M. Bosc, however, who has had occasion to observe and study their motions, affirms that those which alight on ships in the midst of summer, and near the tropics, and which frequently die about fifteen minutes after having emerged from the water, preserve their fins quite flexible for half an hour after death. Dr. S. is likewise silent with respect to the humming noise of the Flying-Fish; which has usually been attributed to the movement of its fins, but which is found to proceed from the air that is expelled from the cavities of the body, and that strikes a peculiar membrane, or drum, on the sides of the mouth. The French author, cited above, makes mention of a large flying-fish, which fell unhurt on a parcel of hay, and emitted this sound for eight or ten minutes, when it died.

Polynemus Niloticus is the *Binni* of Bruce. *P. Indicus* and *P. Tetradactylus* correspond to the *Maga Booshee* and *Maga Jellee* of Russel. The *Decadactylus* is a species characterized by Bloch; *Commersonii* is the synonyme of La Cépède's *Lineatus*, and *Plumieri* is the *Polydactylus Plumieri* of the same author.

The genus *Clupea* is augmented by the *Malabarica*, *Africana*, *Sinensis*, and *Nasus* of Bloch, and the *Tuberculata*, *Chrysoptera*, *Fasciata*, and *Macrocephala* of La Cépède.

The account of the common herring is far from complete. The most circumstantial passage, which respects its supposed migrations, is copied from Pennant, as it might have been from Anderson: but the arguments, which have been recently advanced in opposition to the popular notions, are very slightly stated. Some observations might likewise have been introduced on the apparently capricious disappearance of this fish from certain districts, for a course of years, and the uniform difference of quality between those which frequent the opposite shores of our own island. We could, moreover, have wished for some details concerning the Dutch modes of fishing and curing herrings, and the causes which have hi-

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therto prevented the English and Americans from adopting them.

The Pilchard is thus discriminated from the Herring:

'It is of a somewhat thicker or less compressed form, with the back more elevated and the belly less sharp; the nose rather shorter in proportion and turning upwards, and the under jaw shorter: the scales are considerably larger than in the Herring, and are pretty strongly fixed; those of the Herring, on the contrary, being very easily displaced. A still more remarkable difference consists in the situation of the dorsal fin, which is placed exactly in the centre of gravity, so that when the fish is taken up by it the body preserves an equilibrium; whereas if the Herring be taken up by the same part, the head will be observed to dip considerably: to these differences it may be added that the Pilchard is in general of inferior size to the Herring, and rarely measures more than about eight inches in length: its colour is bright silvery, with a green or bluish cast on the upper parts.'

In his account of the Thrissa herring, the Doctor might have remarked that it frequently proves a poisonous food in the West Indies; owing, it is alleged, either to its having devoured the fruit of the Manchineel tree, or having fed in the neighbourhood of copper ore.

The genus *Cyprinus* is supposed to comprehend one half of the fishes which live exclusively in fresh water, and consequently furnishes a very large quantity of food to the inhabitants of inland countries. Yet the great number of its species, the difficulty of laying hold of the slight characters which discriminate them, the varieties to which even the same species is incident, and the perplexity of the names imposed by illiterate fishermen, have all contributed to impede its extrication, and to render it one of the most obscure subjects in ichthiology. Artedi first, and afterward Linné, made some laudable efforts to fix the species. Bloch improved on both, and illustrated his distinctions by excellent figures. Lastly, La Cépède has thrown additional light on this numerous and important tribe. Dr. Shaw has prudently availed himself of the labours of such able precursors, and has described about sixty species; a few of which, however, he suspects to be only varieties. Among the newly incorporated kinds are *Gibelio*, *Blicca*, *Pomeranicus*, *Fimbriatus*, *Cirrhosus*, *Falcatus*, *Quadrilobus*, *Tincaurea*, *Ferrugineus*, *Nigro-auratus*, *Viridi-violaceus*, *Punctatus*, *Amarus*, and *Clupeoides*.

On the method of feeding and managing Carp, we are presented with a long but interesting extract from Dr. Forster's paper, published in the Philosophical Transactions. The memoirs of the Parisian Academy of Sciences for 1733 might have supplied some curious notices on the anatomy of this fish; a subject

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subject which has employed the pen of many scientific and economical writers.

In his exposition of *Mormyrus*, an obscure genus, till investigated by Geoffroy, the author restores it to the abdominal order, from which Gmelin had removed it. The single-rayed Gill-membrane, and the aperture without a gill-cover, sufficiently warrant this arrangement. At the same time, it may be considered as a connecting link between the abdominal and cartilaginous fishes. 'M. Geoffroy observes that the body is compressed, and that the structure of the tail is unusual, being of a considerable length, and of a subcylindric and inflated appearance, on account of its containing the glands from which the oily matter along the lateral line is secreted: he also observes, that the stomach is strongly muscular; that the ovarium is single; and that the swimming-bladder is almost the length of the abdomen.'—The same naturalist has increased the number of species from three to nine. They all inhabit the Nile: but little is known of their modes of life.

The cartilaginous order comprehends *Petromyzon*, *Gastrobranchus*, *Raia*, *Squalus*, *Spatularia*, *Chimæra*, *Accipenser*, *Lophius*, *Cyclopterus*, *Balistes*, *Ostracion*, *Diodon*, *Cephalus*, *Tetrodon*, *Syngnathus*, *Centriscus*, and *Pegasus*; which are severally expounded, without regard to the distinction of *Chondropterygian* and *Branchiostegous*. These terms, we acknowlege, are sufficiently harsh: but they are consecrated by usage; and the division which they indicate is now generally recognized by most of the foreign Ichthiologists.—The additions to the Linnéan genera of this order, it will readily be perceived, are *Gastrobranchus*, *Spatularia*, and *Cephalus*.

In structure and habits, the several species of *Petromyzon* approach to the Eel, Serpent, and Worm tribes. Their internal conformation differs considerably from that of other fishes. The opening of the mouth is susceptible of changing its form at the pleasure of the animal; the teeth are hollow, having their base inclosed in a fleshy case, and not attached to the jaw; the tongue is crescent-shaped, with very small teeth on its edges; and the organs of respiration consist of fourteen little sacs, seven on a side, having each one orifice on the upper, and two on the under side. When the water has deposited its air in these pouches, it issues by the mouth, or by the spiracle at the nape of the neck; though more frequently it enters by the spiracle, and escapes by the outer aperture of the pouches. The same organs have the property of exhausting the air within the animal, and thus enabling it to adhere with singular tenacity to solid bodies by means of the mouth. The only solid part of this extraordinary fish is a long cartila-

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ginous cord, which contains the spinal marrow. The alimentary canal has neither winding nor process; the heart is very large: but the ovaries are larger than all the internal organs taken together. Fishes of this genus are very tenacious of life, and can lose very considerable portions of their body without perishing. In this country, they are well known under the name *Lamprey*.

Bloch has supplied Dr. Shaw with the *Planeri* and *Argenteus*; and La Cépède has furnished *Ruber*, *Sanguisorba*, *Plumbeus* (*Sept-œil*), and *Bicolor* (*niger*).

As *Myxine Glutinosa* Lin. has been distinctly ascertained by M. Bloch to be a legitimate cartilaginous fish, Dr. Shaw has designed it *Gastrobranchus cæcus*. 'In its general appearance it bears a near resemblance to the Lampries, with which by Kalm, its first describer, it has been associated. It is remarkable for the total want of eyes, not the least vestige of any such organs being discoverable by the most attentive examination.'—The Dombeyan species inhabits the South American seas, was observed by M. Dombey, and has been described by La Cépède from the dried skin in the Paris Museum.

Though the account of the common Skate be rather short and unsatisfactory, the Rays, in general, are treated with felicity and copiousness. The generic characters and habits are ably stated; and the thirty-seven species, or varieties, which pass in review, are divided into four sections, viz. the *rhomboid*, *slender tailed*, *rounded*, and *lengthened*. A few Indian species are adopted from Russel; and La Cépède contributes *Eglanteria*, *Acus*, *Nigra*, *Picta*, *Undulata*, *Alba*, *Marginata*, *Tuberculata*, *Giorna*, *Fabroniana*, *Fimbriata*, *Sinensis*, *Thouiniana*, and *Cuvieri*.

The sting and cramp Ray form two amusing articles. The first is reckoned among the edible species. 'On account of the danger attending the wounds inflicted by the spine, it is usual with the fishermen to cut off the tail as soon as the fish is taken; and it is said to be illegal in France and some other countries to sell the animal with the tail still adhering. It is hardly necessary to observe that the spine is perfectly void of any venomous quality, though formerly supposed to contain a most active poison; and that the effects sometimes produced by it are entirely those arising from deep puncture and laceration; which, if taking place in a tendinous part, or among the larger nerves and blood vessels, have often proved fatal.'

Many interesting particulars relative to the Torpedo are extracted from the observations of Mr. Walsh, of the Royal Society of London, and from the description of the electric organs

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gans by Mr. Hunter. These organs may be considered as a pair of Galvanic batteries, disposed in the form of hexagonal columns. If the animal be not irritated, it may sometimes be touched without being provoked to exert its Galvanic influence.

'The celebrated Spallanzani informs us, that some few minutes before the Torpedo expires, the shocks which it communicates, instead of being given at distant intervals, take place in quick succession, like the pulsations of the heart: they are weak indeed, but perfectly perceptible to the hand when laid on the fish at this juncture, and resemble very small electric shocks. In the space of seven minutes, no less than three hundred and sixty of these small shocks were perceived. Spallanzani also assures us of another highly curious fact, which he had occasion to verify from his own experience, viz. that the young Torpedo can not only exercise its electric faculty as soon as born, but even while it is yet a fætus in the body of the parent animal.'

The next genus, *Squalus*, includes the families of sharks, dog-fish, &c. which are all marine, and distributed into upwards of thirty species. In appearance and anatomical structure, they are nearly allied to the Rays, the flat form of the latter constituting the principal difference. We need not add, that they are distinguished by their great voracity. Dr. Shaw enters with much spirit into the history of the larger sorts, and adopts the *Philippinus*, *Spinosus*, *Squamosus*, *Denticulatus*, and *Punctulatus* from La Cépède. The long snouted species, or saw-fish, might, according to Mr. Latham's proposal, have been conveniently detached from the Squali, and formed into a distinct genus.

Only one species of *Spatularia*, namely the *Reticulata*, is known to the curious. The single spiracle on each side of the neck forms an obvious character.

The two species of *Chimæra* are more grotesque than horrible; and the colours of the northern, or *monstruosus*, are elegant.

Accipenser presents us with no new species. Of the Sterlet, it is observed that it is in very high request as an article of food. It 'is even considered as one of the most delicate of fishes. Sterlet-soup, it is well known, formed one of the favourite luxuries of that gigantic epicure Prince Potemkin of Russia, who in seasons when the fish happened to be unusually dear, was content to purchase it at a price so extravagant, that a single tureen, forming the mere prelude to his repast, stood him in the sum of three hundred rubles!'

Besides two or three species of *Lophius* described in the Naturalist's Miscellany, La Cépède's *Faujas*, (styled *Muricatus*,) and *Commersonii*, enrich the present exposition.

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The additions to *Balistes* are, the *Sinensis* and *Lævis* of Bloch, the *Liturosus*, a native of the Indian seas, observed by Captain Tobin, the *Sonneratii*, *Virescens*, *Fasciatus*, *Unimaculatus*, *Cinereus*, *Signatus*, *Punctatus*, and *Capistratus*, inserted on the authority of La Cépède, and the *Undulatus*, observed by Mr. Mungo Park.

'The Ostracions or Trunk-fishes are so strikingly distinguished by their bony crust or covering, that no difficulty can arise to the ichthyological student in referring them to their proper genus. The investigation of the species, however, demands a greater degree of attention, and such is the similarity between some of these, that it remains doubtful whether they should be considered as truly distinct, or as constituting mere sexual differences.'—The new species are *Concatenatus* and *Nasus*, from Bloch, and *Striatus*, described from a drawing by Captain Tobin.

In some measure, the genus *Diodon* connects fishes with spiny quadrupeds. The *Atinga*, or oblong Diodon, 'is considered as a poisonous fish, unless very carefully cleaned, and, according to Piso, if the least quantity of the gall should happen to mix with the flesh, it produces the most violent symptoms; the tongue becomes immoveable, the limbs stiffen, and a cold sweat ensues; followed by certain death, unless the poison be fortunately expelled by immediate medical aid.'—The *Plumieri* was first observed by Plumier, and the *Liturosus* by Commerson. La Cépède has described both.

We think that the propriety of placing the Sun-fishes under a distinct genus (*Cephalus*) is scarcely demonstrated:—but let the author speak for himself:

'The present genus is very strikingly distinguished by its unusual shape: the species composing it have hitherto been united with those of the genera of *Diodon* and *Tetrodon*. This led to great confusion, on account of an error in the Systema Naturæ, in which the short Sun-fish was referred to the genus *Tetrodon* instead of *Diodon*, in which latter, according to the Linnæan principles of arrangement, it should have been placed. Another species, described by Dr. Pallas, was also introduced into the Gmelinian edition of the Systema Naturæ, under the name *Diodon Mola*; so that the restoring the short Sun-fish, even under a different title, to its true Linnæan genus, would but have increased the confusion.'

The *Tetrodon* like the *Diodon*, has the power of inflating its body at pleasure, and erecting the small spines, which are dispersed over the sides and abdomen. *Spengleri*, *Honkenii*, *Oblongus*, and *Rostratus*, are quoted from Bloch, and *Stellatus*, *Punctatus*, and *Meleagris* from La Cépède.

Of the *Syngnathi*, the *Foliatus* is by far the most peculiar;

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'FOLIATED PIPEFISH.

Syngnathus Foliatus. *S. olivaceo-nigricans, albido-punctatus, appendicibus foliaceis.*

Blackish-olive Pipefish, with white specks, and leaf-shaped appendages.

'A most extraordinary species; far exceeding all the rest of the genus in the singularity of its appearance, which is such as at first view rather to suggest the idea of some production of fancy than of any real existence. In its general shape it is greatly allied to the sea-horse pipe fish, but is considerably longer in proportion, or of a more slender habit: its great particularity however consists in the large leaf-shaped appendages with which the back, tail, and abdomen, are furnished: these appendages are situated on very strong, rough, square spines or processes, and were it not for the perfect regularity of their respective proportions, might be mistaken for the leaves of some kind of fucus adhering to the spines. The colour of the whole animal is a dusky or blackish olive*, thickly sprinkled on all parts, except on the appendages, with small round whitish specks, and accompanied by a kind of metallic gloss on the abdomen: the fins are soft, tender, and transparent. This curious species is a native of the Indian seas. The specimen represented in its natural size on the annexed plate was taken near the coasts of New Holland, and was sent, together with a second of exactly similar appearance, but of rather smaller size, to the Right Honourable Sir Joseph Banks, Baronet, President of the Royal Society, through whose polite permission it was engraved for the present work. Nothing particular seems to be known relative to its habits or natural history.'

Centriscus and *Pegasus* comprize a few species which are remarkable for their aspects and habits. Those which belong to the first are distinguished by a lengthened snout, a compressed body, carinated beneath, and united ventral fins. The characters of the Pegasi are, snout elongated, mouth beneath, pectoral fins large, ventral single-rayed, body depressed, mailed, with the abdomen divided into bony segments.—It might have been observed of *P. natans*, that it is found in a fossil state in the celebrated natural collection of petrified fishes, in Monte Bolca, near Verona.

We have now only to congratulate the judicious and elegant compiler of the present publication, on the conclusion of that part of his subject which, unavoidably, presents more difficulty than entertainment; and which, if we rightly surmise, is less congenial with his inclination and talents than those portions of the zoological system, which are more immediately connected with *Terra Firma*. We observe with pleasure that several peculiarities of expression, which we formerly took the

'* Perhaps greener in the living animal.'

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liberty of noticing, have now disappeared; and we trust that the progress of the work will manifest still nearer approximations to perfection.

ART. V. *The Narrative of Captain David Woodard and Four Seamen,* who lost their Ship while in a Boat at Sea, and surrendered themselves to the Malays, in the Island of Celebes; containing an interesting Account of their Sufferings from Hunger and various Hardships, and their Escape from the Malays, after a Captivity of two Years and a Half. Also an Account of the Manners and Customs of the Country, Description of the Harbours and Coast, &c. And an Appendix, containing Narratives of Escapes from Shipwrecks, under great Hardships and Abstinence; holding out *a Valuable Seaman's Guide,* and the Importance of Union, Confidence, and Perseverance in the midst of Distress. 8vo. pp. 252. 4s. Boards. Johnson.

To the design which is avowed in this publication, great praise must be allowed. The editor, Mr. Vaughan, of a mercantile house in London, has collected within a short compass a number of the most remarkable instances of distress encountered by seamen, in which the sufferers have experienced benefit from the exertion of patience, fortitude, and obedience to the commands of their officers; and these are held out as encouraging examples to other mariners, who may unfortunately be reduced to similar difficulties.

The first and largest part of the volume is occupied with the account of the sufferings of Mr. David Woodard, and his companions, among the Malays, in the island of Celebes, and of their escape. The narrative is interesting, and is much recommended by the plain unassuming style in which it is related by Mr. Woodard. We must, however, remark a negligence in the title-page: Mr. W. was not captain at the time of his misfortune at Celebes; nor was the ship *lost;* and in both these circumstances, the want of precision in the title tends to impress the reader with a wrong idea. Mr. Woodard sailed on that voyage as chief mate of an American ship named the Enterprize; and being in the Strait of Macassar, he was sent with a boat and crew to endeavour to purchase provisions from a vessel which was discovered at some distance: on which service they *lost sight of* their own ship. (This happened on the 1st of March, 1793.) After a vain search, being destitute of provisions, they landed on the island of Celebes for relief, and there fell into the hands of the Malays.

Mr. W. and his companions remained long enough among the people of Celebes to become well acquainted with their language.

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The variety of the treatment which they experienced from the savage dispositions of some of the natives, and from the compassionate kindness of others, gives a more familiar idea of these people than is to be obtained by any regular description which has appeared. They made frequent attempts to escape, which more than once they partially effected, so as to change their masters: for as often as they escaped from one Malay town or district, they were met and captured by the vessels of other Malays, inhabitants of Celebes.

These removals brought them at length within a short distance of the Dutch settlement at Macassar, which was their proposed place of refuge. The account of their final deliverance, not indeed from hard servitude, we shall give as an entertaining sample of Mr. Woodard's narrative.—After having escaped in a canoe from a town named Tomboo, they were again taken prisoners and carried to the town of Pamboon.

'The rajah of Pamboon then asked me (says Mr. W.) if I understood a musket well. Having experienced the inconvenience of owning it at Dungâlly and at Parlow, I answered him in the negative. He then showed me a hundred guns, and wanted me to stay to take charge of them; but I declined it. He then said that all white men understood them. I told him that sailors did not understand the musket, but that soldiers did; and that I was not a soldier. He then asked me if I would not have a wife, and remain there. This I refused. His wife, who was a young girl, came and sat down near me; at the same time telling the rajah, that she should be glad to see a white child. She then asked me to sleep with her. To this also I told her "No." She then called her sister, and about twenty other girls, and causing them all to sit down, desired me to take my choice. I told her "None;" and, rising up, wished her a good night, and went out of doors, where they soon brought me some supper. After supper we lay down, and slept on the ground the remainder of the night, and were guarded by about twenty people.

'In the morning I again waited upon the rajah of Pamboon; and, speaking the Malay tongue very well, I begged that he would send us to Macassar. I assured him that the governor had sent for me, and that I must go there as soon as possible. I at the same time told him, that, if he detained me, the governor would stop all his proas at Macassar. After thinking on it a short time, he called the captain of a proa that was bound there, and delivered me and my men to him, telling him at the same time, that if he could get any thing for us, he might take it; if not, that he might let us go.'

They arrived at Macassar on the 15th of June 1795, and were treated with great humanity by the Dutch Governor, William Pitts Jacobson, and by other gentlemen in the Dutch settlements; which Mr. Woodard has gratefully acknowleged, both in his narrative, and by letters written to his benefactors. The

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editor seems entitled to a share of the commendation merited on this score, but should he not have forborne his claim?

Some interesting particulars of information concerning the island of Celebes, its produce, the harbours and towns along the western coast, the inhabitants, and their customs, are given by Mr. W. as an appendix to his narrative.

The latter part of this volume contains the other cases of distress which Mr. Vaughan has selected for examples. The greater number of these are extracted, in as brief a manner as could be done consistently with the design of the work, from well known narratives. There are some, however, which have not before been made public.

We here meet with the following observation and fact, which cannot be too generally known to sea-faring people:

'Dr. Franklin has advised, when a scarcity of water at sea occurs, that mariners should bathe themselves in tubs of salt water; and that he had observed, that, however thirsty he had been before his immersion into water for the amusement of swimming, he never continued so afterwards; and recommends the apparel of sailors being dipped in the sea, with a confidence of there being no danger of catching cold.'

A narrative is here also quoted, of the loss of a ship coming from the West Indies bound for Whitehaven, in 1768, commanded by Captain Kennedy; who, after having related the distress which he and his people had endured, thus writes:

"I cannot conclude without making mention of the great advantage I received from soaking my clothes twice a day in salt water, and putting them on without wringing.

"It was a considerable time before I could make the people comply with this measure; though, from seeing the good effects it produced, they afterwards, of their own accord, practised it twice a day. To this discovery I may with justice impute the preservation of my own life and that of six other persons, who must have perished but for its being put in use.

"The hint was first communicated to me from the perusal of a treatise written by Dr. Lind, and which I think ought to be commonly understood and recommended to all sea-faring people.

"There is one very remarkable circumstance, and worthy of notice, which is, that we daily made the same quantity of urine as if we had drunk moderately of any liquid; which must be owing to a body of water being absorbed through the pores of the skin. The saline particles remaining in our clothing became encrusted by the heat of our bodies and that of the sun, which cut and wounded our posteriors, and from the intense pain, rendered sitting very disagreeable. But we found, upon washing out the saline particles, and frequently wetting our clothes without wringing (which we practised twice a day), the skin became well in a short time: and so very great advantage did we derive from this practice, that the violent drought went off: the

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parched tongue was cured in a few minutes after bathing and washing our clothes; at the same time we found ourselves as much refreshed as if we had received some actual nourishment."

We recommend this volume to public notice as a well intended, useful, and entertaining publication.

ART. VI. *Rhymes on Art;* or the Remonstrance of a Painter: in two Parts. With Notes and a Preface, including Strictures on the State of the Arts, Criticism, Patronage, and public Taste. By Martin Archer Shee, R.A. 8vo. pp. 140. 5s. Boards. Ebers. 1805.

WE shall not say to Mr. Shee, *ne sutor ultra crepidam*, or "Mr. Artist, keep to your canvas;"—we cannot reproach him for being 'a truant from the pencil to the lyre,' since his skill in the management of both is indisputable. Very few of the moderns have cultivated the Muse with more striking success; and whether we regard the vigor of his conceptions, the appositeness of his metaphors, the elegance of his expression, or the nerve and flow of his verse, the author of the Rhymes on Art needs not shrink from a comparison with our most respectable existing writers. His poetry is not thin and flimsy, but may be compared to fine painting, in which a body of colour is used, and the figures protrude from the canvas in the boldest projections. He is so enthusiastic in his advocacy for the Arts, and diffuses that enthusiasm so attractively through almost every line, that we are in danger, while we read him, of catching the flame, and of being seduced to an adoption of his sombre thoughts on the subject. When, however, reason calmly resumes her seat, and the visions of poetry are succeeded by the views of cool judgment, we begin to suspect that this Remonstrance of a Painter is overcharged; and that the complaint, though captivating by its eloquence and address, is pushed to an extreme which real evidence will not justify. Is it a fact that the Painters of the present day are 'neglected, unsupported, and unemployed?' Is it true that 'the groves of taste produce no golden fruit?' Can it be said that 'the fine Arts, at the present moment, feel the effects of what Johnson calls "the general conspiracy of human nature against cotemporary merit," with *peculiar* severity?' When, indeed, it is admitted that 'the Arts in England have advanced beyond our hopes, and taken precedence of their age,' it is not very reasonable to suppose that they have laboured here under any gigantic oppression, or have been chilled by torpid indifference. We are entirely of opinion with Mr. Shee, that 'it is the

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the policy of a great nation to be liberal and magnificent, to be free of her rewards, splendid in her establishments, and gorgeous in her public works:'—we should receive cordial satisfaction in beholding the power and glory of our country recorded on the most splendid and sumptuous monuments, where the hand of genius and taste should be employed under the liberal patronage of a great people, for the purpose of transmitting to the remotest posterity, the brilliant periods of our history, and the names of those whose talents or valour have contributed to render them illustrious:—but, though we are not employed in erecting pyramids like those of Egypt, cloud-cap'd naval pillars, enormous colossal statues, nor a most superb national mausoleum; though the patronage of the Arts is not made a distinct object of Government; though the productions of old masters are held in extreme veneration, and picture-dealers amass greater fortunes than painters;—we are reluctant to admit that artists in this country are abandoned to penury and neglect, or that circumstances of peculiar discouragement repress the painter's exertions. All cannot succeed alike. In the departments of literature, science, and taste, some "roses will blush unseen, and waste their sweetness on the desert air." Some individuals, with talents meriting a better destiny, will die neglected; and works, which did not obtain bread for the author, will enrich the dealer: but the occurrence of these circumstances cannot be altogether prevented.

The patronage extended to artists in this country is general; it flows not from any particular establishment, but from the diffused wealth of the country. Are not artists usually well paid; and if they were to paint more for fame, and less for immediate profit, would they not eventually be remunerated *? If Sir Joshua Reynolds sleeps under a nameless stone, was he, while living, unremunerated, or unpatronized? Mr. Shee writes like a man whose mind has been soured; he looks *con mali occhi* at every thing that seems to withdraw the public attention from the Arts; and, adverting to the Royal Institution, he ventures to assert that 'the physical sciences have more than their share in the partition of public favour.' He laughs at the 'duck and drake dip in philosophy' taken by our gentlemen loungers, and laments that the accomplished belle of the present day

* Portrait-painting much prevails, in consequence of individual vanity; and historical and landscape painting is too much neglected. Our Exhibitions are disgusting by the number of portraits: but why do not painters exert their genius to remedy this evil? why will they not give the public something more deserving of their gaze and admiration?

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should slight the muses and the graces for oxygene and hydrogene, for caloric and carbonic. In short, he cannot endure the thought of having even Science herself honoured above his favourite profession.

While, however, we in some measure resist these representations, we at the same time applaud Mr. Shee for his attachment. We shall indulge him with supposing that 'public apathy benumbs the powers of graphic skill;' and we shall not only allow him to exclaim

> 'Will no warm patriot take the Muse's part,
> And rouse his country in the cause of Art?' *

but shall venture to answer, that, if the country wants rousing, his poem must materially contribute to produce this effect. He informs us that the two parts, here published, compose the first book of an intended poem in four books, on the subject of Painting; and that 'the portion now offered to the public is detached without any great violence, as it is not so much a part of his plan, as an introduction to it, containing a Remonstrance in favour of pursuits which unfortunately have been latterly but little distinguished by public notice and protection.'

The subject is thus proposed:

> 'What various aids the student's course requires,
> Whom Art allures, and love of fame inspires;
> But chief, what toils demand his earlier hours,
> Prepare his triumphs, and unfold his powers,
> The muse attempts - with beating bosom springs,
> And dares advent'rous on didactic wings.
>
> 'Too long our isle, though rich in stores of mind,
> Proud to be free, scarce deign'd to be refin'd;
> Still with a surly Spartan virtue frown'd,
> Nor sought to rival states for arts renown'd:
> But now no longer heedless we refuse
> The proffer'd garland of the Graphic Muse;
> Britannia binds her laurell'd brows once more,
> And adds the only wreath unwon before;

* The complaint stands thus in prose:

'Our arts, indeed, have experienced the fate which was denounced against our liberties—they have been invaded from every port upon the continent,—over-run by a possé of picture-dealers; and yet we have seen no *defence bills* passed for their protection—no *patriotic funds* appropriated to their use—no voluntary offers of service tendered throughout the districts of Taste: dangerous principles have spread in their very camp of defence, and all the corps of criticism are disaffected: our connoisseurs are become *catamarans* to blow up our own pretensions; and even the small craft of critics are proud to shew the *colours* of the enemy, and cruise against us on our own coasts.'

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While nations long supreme in taste retire,
Confess her claims, and in their turn admire.'

With indignation, the poet repels the reflection which has been thrown on our climate, as unpropitious to the exertions of genius:

'Yet while supine our gentler genius lay,
And war and commerce bore exclusive sway;
Ere Taste her orb from Latium had withdrawn,
Or yet the cliffs of Albion caught the dawn,
Coxcombs, exulting dar'd her powers despise,
Aspers'd her sons, and slander'd e'en her skies:
But now no more th' injurious taunt is thrown;
Her arts, triumphant as her arms, are known;
Arous'd, her genius soars on wing sublime,
Asserts her taste, and vindicates her clime.
Insult! to think the land where Shakspeare sprung,
The heav'n *he* breath'd—where seraph Milton sung!
In strains more sweet than erst from fabled shell
Of Orpheus old, or fam'd Amphion, fell:
Where Pope, where Dryden swept the sounding lyre,
With Maro's melody, and Homer's fire!
Where Science, (long on weak Conjecture's wing,
A thwarted falcon, flutt'ring from the string,)
Loos'd by her Newton's hand, first shot on high,
And perch'd amid the mansions of the sky:
Insult! to think, where valour, virtue sway!
Where beauty sheds around her brightest ray!
Where Reason boasts how Locke—how Bacon shone!
And triumphs on her philosophic throne:
Insult! to think this garden of the globe,
This spangle shining bright on Nature's robe!
From finer joys in cold seclusion plac'd,
A kindless clime beyond the beam of taste!
On wings of fire sustain'd, th' immortal mind,
Nor clime controls, nor fog, nor frost can bind.
Where freedom, man's most cheering sunshine, glows,
Whether on Libyan sands, or Zemblan snows;
Where life exults, with each bold feeling fraught,
And fancy fearless springs the mine of Thought:
There, blooms the soul, there, every muse delights,
Swells her full strain, and soars her highest flights:
Luxuriant there, from moral roots arise
Pure joys which compensate inclement skies;
Spontaneous sweets that torrid tracts endear,
Redress the cold, and calm the raging year.

'To Albion's view what mental glories rise!
Though winter rudely revels in her skies;
Though fogs engender there, and frosts deform
The agu'ish clime, an intermitting storm;

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The orb of genius cheers her hardy sons,
And bright through every sign of science runs,
Pervades with ripening ray each art refin'd,
And glows through all her atmosphere of mind.'

The qualifications of the painter, and the arduous nature of his undertaking, are thus happily sketched, and impressed on the mind of the young artist:

'Of all th' advent'rous spirits who disdain
To plod in dull content, life's level plain,
The painter only with the poet dares
An equal flight, and combats equal cares;
Alike aloft, their arduous progress lies,
O'er shoreless seas, amid unshelter'd skies;
Where, dread expanse! fierce-driving tempests blow,
And only genius shuns the gulf below:
Where fools half fluttering and half floating still,
Who flounder on against Apollo's will,
Become the general jest, the vulgar game,
And sink at last beneath a weight of shame.

'Who boldly then the common track depart,
Toil after fame, and take the paths of art;
Ye finer souls! in Fancy's eye who see
Whate'er young hopes, and sanguine hearts decree;
While yet unspell'd, unplighted you remain,
Pause, ere you join the art-enamour'd train;
Consult your powers, the fancied passion prove,
Nor transient liking take, for lasting love;
The nymph once wedded, you repent too late,
To change your fortune, or to check your fate;
When time shall tinge her beauties in your sight,
And all seem labour which was once delight;
From hope's fond dreams unwillingly awake,
When slow conviction whispers your mistake;
Then shall you wish some less advent'rous aim
Had fix'd you safe below the cares of fame;
To some obscure mechanic toil had sway'd,
Or left you humbly diligent in trade;
While foil'd ambition weeps his wasted prime,
And disappointment drags the load of time.
To gain th' immortal wreath of art requires,
Whate'er of worth, or Muse, or Grace inspires;
Whatever man, of heav'n, or earth, obtains,
Through mental toil, or mere mechanic pains;
A constant heart, by Nature's charms impress'd,
An ardour, ever burning in the breast;
A zeal for truth, a power of thought intense;
A fancy, flowering on the stems of sense;
A mem'ry, as the grave retentive, vast;
That holds to rise again, th' imprison'd past;

A feel-

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A feeling, strong, instinctive, active, chaste;
The thrilling electricity of taste;
That marks the muse on each resplendent part,
The seal of nature, on the acts of art;
An eye to bards alone and painters given,
A frenzied orb, reflecting earth and heaven;
Commanding all creation at a glance,
And ranging Possibility's expanse;
A hand, with more than magic skill endow'd,
To trace Invention's visions as they crowd;
Embody thoughts beyond the poet's skill,
And pour the eloquence of art at will;
'Bove all, a dauntless soul to persevere,
Though mountains rise, though Alps on Alps appear;
Though Poverty present her meagre form,
Though patrons fail, and Fortune frown a storm.'

As we have sufficiently noticed Mr. Shee's enmity to 'the picture-panders,' who 'crush their country's arts by foreign aid,' we shall make no extract from that part of the poem in which he vents his resentment: but we cannot deny our readers his animated conclusion, in which he asserts the astonishing and unrivalled powers of the painter's art:

'The painter's eye, to sovereign Beauty true,
Marks every grace, and heightens every hue;
Follows the fair through all her forms and wiles,
Studies her airs, and triumphs in her smiles;
Imagines wondrous scenes as Fancy warms,
And revels, rich in all Creation's charms:
His art her homage, and his soul her shrine,
She rules his life, and regulates his line;
While rapt to frenzy as the goddess fires,
He pours to view the visions she inspires.

'Presented to the cultur'd eye of Taste,
No rock is barren, and no wild is waste;
No shape uncouth, or savage, but in place,
Excites an interest, or assumes a grace;
Whether the year's successive seasons roll,
Or Proteus passion paint the varying soul;
Whether, apart consider'd, or combin'd,
The forms of matter, and the traits of mind;
Nature, exhaustless, still has power to warm,
And every change of scene a novel charm:
The dome-crown'd city, or the cottag'd plain,
The rough cragg'd mountain, or tumultuous main;
The temple rich in trophied pride array'd,
Or mould'ring in the melancholy shade;
The spoils of tempest, or the wrecks of time;
The earth abundant, and the heaven sublime:
All, to the painter purest joys impart,
Delight his eye, and stimulate his art.

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'From sense reclaim'd to bliss of nobler birth,
He envies not the bustling sons of earth,
Who anxious climb the heights of wealth and power,
The care-cloth'd pageants of a restless hour;
For him, unlock the springs of finer joy,
The stores of soul – the sweets that never cloy;
Nature for him unfolds her fairest day,
For him, puts on her picturesque array;
Beneath his eye new-brightens all her charms,
And yields her blushing beauties to his arms;
His prize, and praise, pursu'd in shades or crowds;
He fancies prodigies, and peoples clouds;
Arrests in rapid glance each fleeting form
Loves the mild calm, and studies in the storm.'

In the notes subjoined to this passage, the author maintains the superiority of Painting over Poetry, and the argument is forcibly urged:

'Beyond the poet in the strength of his conceptions, as well as in the force and fidelity with which they are expressed, the painter is more alive to what passes around him; external objects take a stronger hold of his imagination; the impressions of beauty, of grandeur, of sublimity, sink deeper into his soul. His art, estimated according to its noblest examples, considered in every view of mental or manual ability, appears to be the most arduous enterprise of taste, and, without injustice to other pursuits may be termed the most extraordinary operation of human genius; in its theory and principles unfolding the most subtle refinements of the intellectual power, in its practice displaying the most dexterous achievement of mechanical skill.

'The only character indeed that can pretend to rank with the painter in the great scale of human ingenuity, is the poet; but, *he* has not been satisfied with equality, he has commonly contended for a higher station; and having been usually judge and jury in the cause, he has always taken care to decide it in his own favour. Yet an impartial investigation, by abilities competent to the task, of the powers displayed in both arts; of the qualities from nature and education which they respectively require, would perhaps amend the record, if not reverse the decree. What is there of *intellectual* in the operations of the poet, which the painter does not equal? what is there of *mechanical* which he does not surpass? He, also is one "cui sit ingenium, cui mens divinior." The "os magna sonaturum," indeed, is not his; but he has a language more general – more eloquent—more animated; as much more arduous in its attainment, as it is more extraordinary in its effects. Where their arts resemble, the painter keeps his level with the poet; where they differ, he takes a more elevated ground.

'The advantage which poetry possesses over painting, in continued narration and successive impression, cannot be advanced as a peculiar merit of the poet, since it results from the nature of language, and is common to prose.

'The eye of the painter is required to be as much more sensible and acute than the eye of the poet, as the accuracy of him who imitates, should

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should exceed that of him who only describes. What is the verbal expression of a passion, compared to its visible presence; the narration of an action, to the action itself brought before your view? What are the "verba ardentia" of the poet, to the breathing beauties, the living lustre of the pencil, rivalling the noblest productions of nature, expressing the characteristics of matter and mind, the powers of soul, the perfection of form, the brightest bloom of colour, the golden glow of light? Can the airy shadows of poetical imagery be compared to the embodied realities of art?

'Where the poet cursorily observes, the painter studies intensely; what the one carries loosely in his memory, the other stamps upon his soul. The forms and combinations of things, the accidents of light and colour, the relations of distance and degree, the passions, proportions, and properties of men and animals; all the phenomena of 'the visible diurnal sphere," the painter must treasure up in his mind in clear, distinct, indelible impressions, and with the powers of a magician call them up at a moment's warning, like "spirits from the vasty deep" of his imagination,

"To do his bidding, and abide his will."

'From the nature of the medium through which the poet operates, he has an advantage over the painter which considerably facilitates his progress. As verse is constructed of language modified by number and measure, the poet may be said to pursue, in some degree, a prepratory course of study from his cradle; he never talks but he may be considered as sharpening his tools, and collecting his materials; his instrument is never out of his hands, and whether he reads, writes, or converses, he exercises his faculties in a way that appears to have a direct reference to his art, and to be a prelude to his performance.

'The painter, on the other hand, makes use of a medium that has no analogy to speech, no connexion with any of his ordinary habits or acquirements; his art speaks a language of the most uncommon construction, and most comprehensive influence: demanding the unremitting application of a life to produce that facility of expression—that fluency of graphic utterance, by which only, he can hope to address himself effectually to the passions and understandings of men.

'If to become familiar with the writings of the ancients, to comprehend their beauties, and compose in their language, be the proudest attainments of the scholar and the poet; how much more worthy of admiration is the skill of him who pours forth his ideas in the glowing language of Nature! who becomes familiar with all her beauties, who learns by heart all her characters, though numerous and varied, to an extent that reduces the amplitude of the Chinese tongue to a contracted alphabet; and who can trace them through all their combinations, from the simplest blade of grass in the field, to the most complex example of her power, in that alpha and omega of her hand —the hieroglyphic miracle, man.'

The powers of the painter and of the poet are both creative; and when employed under the inspiration of real genius, the effects

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effects of both are eminently striking. In some instances, the painter has the advantage of the poet, and in others the reverse may be stated. If the former exceeds the latter in the exactness with which his conceptions are embodied, the latter often presents pictures to the imagination which the former cannot express by the utmost force of his art. The painter can only catch a particular instant, while the poet can exhibit the progress of an action; and though the artist may boast of the superiority of imitation over description, he must know that "the poet's eye in a fine frenzy rolling" often sees more than lines and colours can possibly exhibit. Which has the precedence, we shall not decide: but we shall hope that the partnership which has so long subsisted between poetry and painting will not now be interrupted.

By the specimens which we have adduced above, the character which we have given of Mr. Shee as a poet will be established. Some of his lines are exquisite, such as the following,

'Catch the cold drops that flatt'ry thaws from pride,'

in which the metaphor is perfectly preserved, and the picture intended to be drawn of a toad-eater to a great man is executed as it were by a single stroke. The greatest fault of Mr. Shee's verse is the continual recurrence of alliteration. We have not only 'rudely revels'—'sombre scene'—'golden gleam'—'alike aloft'—and 'hereafter here,' but also this line, which, from its alliterative property, it is difficult to read:

'With horn and hoof who ravage, rage, and spoil.'

We have also—'where wisdom wonder'd'—'brain-bound and bleak'—and 'little lustre life.'——As Mr. Shee had made use of the expression 'Atmosphere of mind,' we did not expect in the same poem to meet with 'Atmosphere of care.' These being trifling blemishes, they can easily be removed; and Mr. Shee will not be displeased with such hints for the improvement of his Muse.

If, after all, more reasons exist for Mr. Shee's lamentations than we are aware, we hope that his poem will excite the attention of the affluent portion of the public to the state of the arts; so that measures may be adopted to raise their drooping head, to direct our admiration to living genius, and to prevent the complaint that

——— 'patronage in picture-dealing dies!'

ART.

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ART. VII. *Modern Discoveries, &c. &c.* Vols. III. & IV. *Travels in Africa*, performed during the Years 1785, 1786, and 1787, in the Western Countries of that Continent, comprized between Cape Blanco in Barbary, situated in 20° 47′, and Cape Palmas in 4° 30′ North Latitude. Embellished with a general Map of Africa, corrected according to the most authentic and recent Observations; and several Plans, Copper-plates, &c. By Silv. Meinard Xavier Golberry. Translated from the French, without Abridgment, by Francis Blagdon, Esq., Professor of the French, Italian, Spanish, and German Languages. 2 Vols. 12mo. 14s. Boards. Ridgway.

A GLANCE at the map of Africa will sufficiently indicate how imperfectly Europeans are at present acquainted with this immense peninsula. Travellers, in attempting to penetrate its interior, have inflamed our curiosity, have created desires for farther research, and have induced a train of interesting speculations on the real state of this hitherto almost unexplored continent. When it is considered that the extreme length of Africa, (*i. e.* from Cape Aguillas, situated to the East of the Cape of Good Hope, and forming its most southern point,) to Cape Bon, (East of the Gulf of Tunis, which forms the most northern point of the Continent,) is reckoned to be seventy-six degrees, (French measure), which at 25 leagues to a degree is equal to nineteen hundred leagues;—that its mean breadth, according to M. Golberry, is eight hundred and forty-two leagues, giving a surface of 1,600,000 square leagues;—and that this vast portion of the globe has never been intersected by Europeans, whose inquiries have for the most part been confined to its coasts;—all the friends of valuable science must wish that some effectual means could be devised for obtaining full and accurate accounts of the several kingdoms, or states, which constitute the whole of African geography. Till Africa can be traversed from East to West, and from North to South; and especially till a journey be made by some intelligent and respectable persons, across the width of the peninsula from Cape Verd to Nubia or Upper Egypt; we can never obtain satisfactory information relative to the natural history, political state, and population of the interior.

Though our countryman Mr. Mungo Park has asserted that the Niger is a distinct river from the Senegal, and that the former is lost in the sands of the desert, and never empties itself like other rivers into the sea, Mr. Golberry is of opinion that 'many plausible reasons seem to render this intelligence *equivocal*.' He sarcastically mentions the populous and *mysterious* city of Houssa, which, according to Mungo Park, contains 800,000 souls; and, in spite of Park's avowed discovery, he

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is disposed to regard the Senegal as a continuation of the Niger. If indeed Mr. Park's account be admitted, the Niger is the most singular stream in the Universe; differing not only from every European, Asiatic, and American river, but from every other great river in Africa. Considering the quantity of rain which falls on this continent during the wet season, and how vastly the Nile, the Senegal, and its other rivers are swelled, so as to inundate whole countries, it is scarcely credible that the Niger, which must also acquire at this period a great accumulation of water, should not then force its way to the ocean. The existence also of such masses of population, as the cities of Tombuctoo, Houssa, and Tocrur are said to exhibit, indicates a degree of fertility, cultivation, and improvement, of which our present intercourse with the Africans gives us no idea. We hear of extensive deserts, or oceans of barren, moveable sand, and of oases or fertile islands diffused with more or less profusion over the vast surface: but the position of these *Oases*, and the proportion which they bear to the whole extent, we have yet no means of ascertaining.

To force a way through this track would be impossible; for, supposing a small number of European troops to be equal to repell the natives, the want of water alone would probably effect the destruction of the whole party. The most practicable modes seem to be to adopt the Mohammedan dress and manner of living, and to travel with the caravans or slave merchants; or to engage negroes for an adequate gratuity to take the route in contemplation, to enter into treaties with the princes of the several states for the safe conduct of the party, to meet a certain number of Europeans in Upper Egypt, and to return with them to the banks of the Senegal. If such a plan could be executed, we might obtain details relative to the interior of Africa, which would enrich the science of nature with a variety of new subjects, and on which the fullest reliance could be placed.

For the present, we must content ourselves with those who explore regions in the vicinity of the coast; and who eke out the result of their own observations with probable conjecture, and the reports of those natives who are induced by trade to cultivate an intercourse with Europeans. M. Golberry, if his researches have not been carried to that ample extent which an awakened curiosity might require, has been a diligent, investigating, and, we must add, modest traveller; for he has given to the original work the title of "Fragments of a Journey in Africa." The journies which he made, in several principal countries of Western Africa, included between Cape Blanco and Cape Palmas, and comprizing the three districts which he has specified

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cified to the French under the general denomination of the government of the Senegal, brought him acquainted with a considerable extent of this Continent; and though the district traversed by him bears a small proportion to the whole peninsula,' the account which he has afforded of African scenery, (parts of which, we are assured, will vie in beauty with any tracks in Europe,) of animals, of vegetable and mineral productions, of the habits, manners, and superstitions of the different tribes, of the atmosphere and diseases, of the state of commerce, &c. &c. must cause his work to be perused with amusement as well as profit.

In his study of Nature and of Man, the author is not inattentive to the interests of religion and morals. While he pleads for the indulgence of criticism as a military man, he avows with satisfaction the motives by which he has been governed in the composition of his chapters:

'As a friend of morality, I am of opinion, that sacrifices are due to decency and good manners, especially in travels; and persuaded, that public and private happiness, and the prosperity and importance of a great nation, are incompatible with a contempt of religion, I have availed myself of those opportunities which are always afforded to those who write on nature and mankind, of reverting to the admiration of the Supreme Being.

'In Africa, as every where else, the impression of his greatness, power and goodness, is evident; and, notwithstanding what has been said, I have seen modesty, benevolence, probity, and amiable hospitality, among the number of native virtues: I have found the idea of a just and bountiful God, engraved in the heart and soul of the upright man; and even ignorant and savage hordes believe in one God alone, and implore his favour and protection. In short, my Travels have rendered me proof against the guilty and fatal errors of that false philosophy, which would persuade us that the universe, so admirable, when considered collectively or individually, is only the production of chance.'

At the commencement of his examination of the present continent of Africa, the traveller offers various reasons to support his belief in the former existence of the Atlantis, or of a continent of which the Azore, Canary, and Cape Verd Isles are the remains: but we shall not recur to speculations on those antecedent revolutions of Nature, to which we owe the superficial arrangement of the globe as we now behold it, since sufficient matter for reflection is afforded by the facts which offered themselves to his immediate notice. Entering Africa in that part of its western coast which is by this writer denominated the Government of Senegal, M. Golberry lays down with exactness the position of the Capes or projecting points of land, and minutely describes the large rivers, especially that of Senegal. To prejudice the reader in favour of this part of

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the globe, or at least to remove the idea of its being devoted to uniform sterility, he sketches the landscape which presents itself between the Cape of Leopards and that of Sierra Leone:

'The space between those two capes forms the entrance to the river, the width of which is nearly 17 minutes, or seven leagues terrestrial measurement, and as it empties its waters forcibly into the sea, and its banks to the north being covered with extensive forests, bounded on the south by a chain of hillocks, ornamented with the richest verdure, the entrance to the bay forms one of the most romantic landscapes that can possibly be conceived, and highly pleasing to those whose souls are sensible to the beautiful charms and sublime appearances of Nature.

'On arriving at the entrance of this bay, one's attention is caught by a long valley which the river completely fills, leaving between its current and the woods and hills that compose its limits, only a space, at the utmost, of one hundred fathoms.

'On the right bank the soil appears to decrease; on the left bank it rises in the form of amphitheatres, covered with majestic trees, of a very remarkable strength and height, embellished with a rich, abundant, and variegated foliage. On contemplating these noble productions of Nature in a free, tranquil, and, as it were, virgin state, the mind becomes in a sort of ecstasy; for here Nature is still respected, and the venerable appearance of her time-worn productions renders them in some degree an object of religious adoration.

'Grateful for the sensations which I experienced, my soul returned thanks to the Creator, for having permitted such magnificent specimens of vegetation to originate on a soil, where they have grown peaceably and independent, and been able to preserve their primitive and simple forms; forms which art may be capable of varying, but can never hope to imitate.

'Those who delight in these tranquil and melancholy scenes, which lull the mind into a sweet contemplation; those who would wish to feel all the charms of the landscape afforded by the entrance to the river Sierra Leone, should arrive there in the month of April, about five o'clock in the afternoon: this was exactly the time when I entered the bay.'

As the author's account of the Government of Senegal under the French will not be particularly amusing to the English reader, we shall pass this part of the work. The religion of the negroes inhabiting western Africa, which is denominated *Fetichism*, is curious, as evincing the sad effects of ignorance combined with timid superstition; in the same manner as the confederation, or association of warriors, under the name of the *Purrah*, if we are to credit the relation here given, shews how far even nations of savages might be disciplined.

The peculiar formation of the mouth of the Senegal, the danger of passing the bar, and the caution which is requisite on this occasion, are stated with an attention which manifests

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the author's solicitude to preserve the lives of those who navigate this part of the coast; and his general observations on this river give a tolerable view of the nature of the country:

'The extent of the Senegal, from its mouth to the cataract of the rock called Felow, is nearly two hundred and eighty leagues; though the distance, in a direct line, between this cataract, which is the period of the navigation of the French towards the interior of Africa, and the bar, is only a hundred and sixty leagues; but no river in the world is perhaps, subject to so many sinuosities, turnings, and circumvolutions.

'On proceeding from the rock Felow, as far as the sea, it is soon perceived that this river takes a meandering course into the countries: its general descent is very gentle, and every thing indicates, that the part of Africa contained between the eighth degree of eastern longitude from the isle of Ferro and the Atlantic Ocean, and between the twelfth and eighteenth degree of north latitude, is a very low country, and that the inclination of its level is almost imperceptible. The waters of the Senegal running over this generally sandy, light, and almost horizontal earth, are left to their full motion by the soils which they intersect, and are consequently drawn out of their regular direction by the slightest local circumstances. For instance, a thick wood, a bank of rocks, a vein of stone more tenacious and hard, or of earth more compact, quickly changes the direction of these waters, and makes them adopt such a zigzag course, that the river almost at every instant seems to be retrograding towards its source.

'In short, no other river whatever is so often subject to such unexpected windings and numerous circumvolutions: it retreats so often of its own accord, and its branches so frequently take directions the very reverse of that which it ought to pursue, that in the navigation of this river, either by sailing or towing, which latter is more common, the boats are incessantly obliged to change their tack; and in many instances it happens, that they are forty-eight hours in passing the contours of a peninsula, the gorge of which is only a piece of land twenty fathoms broad; and, after a voyage of two days, they find themselves exactly under the same meridianal point from which they had set out.

'This tortuous navigation makes an addition to the passage from isle St. Louis to Galam, of upwards of a hundred leagues; and the voyage up the Senegal, which can be made only during the rainy season, that being the time when the river swells, has always been considered as dangerous both to health and existence; for it is well known, that one-third of the Europeans who undertake this voyage, fall a sacrifice to its difficulties. In fact, the frequent turnings and windings of the Senegal form only a small portion of the inconveniences of this voyage; for those who undertook it have always been assailed and inconvenienced by the banks of sand, and rocky projections, which intersect the bed of the river; by enormous trees and large clumps of earth, which the waters detach and carry off; by hurricanes and storms, the intervals between which are perfect calms; by a burning atmos-

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phere, which when agitated, is completely suffocating; by unexpected embarrassments arising from the carelessness and negligence of the negroes who man the boats, which cause endless disputes and negotiations with the princes and chiefs whose territories they pass through; by the unwholesome emanations from the blossoms of certain trees, that grow in great numbers on the banks of this river, and though their odour is agreeable, yet it causes shocking head-achs, and otherwise increases the dangers of this long navigation: but, by certain precautions, which are possible and practicable, the government might render this passage, in future, more safe and agreeable; and when this point is effected, the passage from isle St. Louis to Galam, would afford a mixture of pleasure and astonishment, and would be one of the most curious and interesting voyages that could possibly be made; for in these long and numerous contours, Nature has been incredibly prodigal in her most magnificent vegetation, as well as in every thing astonishing and agreeable, contained in her animal kingdom.

'In some of the parts which are passed, all the attractions are exhibited, which Nature possesses in her virgin state: in other points, one may admire the most striking effects produced by her maturity and antiquity, the trees of which are of a size and height which prove their extreme age, and excite a mixture of admiration and respect; for many prodigious specimens of vegetation are still handsome and green, and apparently wish to convince us, that in these solitary and fertile countries, Nature is always in her prime of life, but never superannuated.

'In every part of the river, where the water is shallow, are found a great number of caymans, and hippopotami of a most enormous size.

'The banks are the theatres for the ludicrous and aukward sport of a number of apes of different species, or of the innocent pleasures of antelopes, gazelles, kids and numerous other animals, whose manners are simple and agreeable; the trees are filled with birds, whose brilliant and singular colours charm the eye, and captivate the mind.'

The discussion of the gum-trade includes an account of the gum-tree, of the three great forests in which this article is furnished, and of the season and manner in which it is collected. The quantity of gum annually produced is stated at 2,000,000 lbs., which is brought to a kind of fair by the Moors, after preliminaries are settled between their chiefs and the merchants. Of this fair, a disgusting description is given by the traveller. The advantages resulting from the gum-trade are represented as fully compensating for all the unpleasant circumstances with which it is connected.

After having sketched the character of the Moors, M. Golberry proceeds to notice the Zahara, or Great Desert of Barbary, where the different tribes take up their residence; the smallest dimensions of which 'are 600 leagues long by 300 leagues broad.' The traveller has not himself examined this sandy expanse: but the particulars which he has collected are too curious to be passed over:

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'It appears that at the present time there are thirty-two known oases, or habitable countries, in the Zahara, which have been rendered fertile by springs of fresh water. The largest of these oases are inhabited, different tribes of Moors having established themselves, and founded in them a sort of colonies: it is supposed that these colonies of Moors, which overspread the desert of Barbary, are seventeen in number. The other oases being not so large, only serve as points for the refreshment and rest of the caravans who travel through the Desert, as well as for the Moors who habitually perform such extensive journies.

'It is known that the caravans traverse the great desert of the Zahara in nine different and principal directions, and that the Moorish tribes who reside in it, pass over it at every point.'—

'The soil of the Zahara consists of fine sand, which is nothing but a mass of small and uncombined particles; these particles however, are not stony, like the elements of sand, but susceptible of petrification; the sands of the Zahara being composed of infinitely diminutive grains, are of a very great depth, and being agitated by the winds, in a manner similar to the waves of the sea, they are thus formed into mountains, which, from the same cause, are shortly after dispersed, and raised to a considerable height, till their expansion obscures the rays of the sun.

'On this sandy extent there may frequently be seen columns of sand resembling the water-spouts met with at sea: in short the nature of these sands is averse from combination, since in the whole of this vast Desert there are scarcely any rocks, and fertile countries are seldom discoverable in it.

'From the vast moving, dry and arid plains which border on the north of the Senegal, I have seen these sand spouts arise in the form of columns, sometimes, advancing with rapidity, at others, proceeding with a majestic slowness, and affording a grand and magnificent spectacle. Their rapidity is sometimes so great, that they are scarcely perceptible, before they vanish to such a degree, as to resemble ribbons floating in the air at the pleasure of the wind, but the lower extremity of which always touches the earth; at other times, their upper extremities rise to such an immense height, that they are lost in the clouds: these spouts frequently break at a great elevation, and the immense volume of sand is dispersed through the atmosphere; at other times they break to appearance, in the middle, and the report occasioned by this rupture is similar to the explosion of a mine.

'One day in particular, I counted three of these spouts at the distance of about a thousand paces from each other: the diameter of the greatest seemed to be two feet, and the rapidity of all of them was prodigious.'

Vast as the Zahara is, compared in extent with some mighty kingdoms of Europe, it occupies no considerable portion of Africa. The author inclines to believe that it has not always been an unproductive and solitary desert; though no evidence exists to support his conjectures of its former fertility and population.

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Some pages are employed in discriminating the different races perceptible among the Moors, in an account of their breed of horses, and in an enumeration of the singular qualities of the Dromedary. M. Golberry represents the Dromedary as an animal indispensably necessary to those who would make an expedition into the interior of Africa; and he advises the French Government to form a stud of Dromedaries, if any views are entertained of penetrating into this continent, of civilizing the natives, and of establishing any commercial connections among them. Golden motives are urged, to forward expeditions of this kind; some of the districts of Africa are said to be auriferous; and several mines are specified as containing an abundance of the most precious metal, which the ignorant natives are incapable of working to advantage. The whole hill of Natakon is described as an amalgamation of gold; and it is conjectured that, beneath its base, this metal might be found in great abundance, and in large masses. The negroes suppose the devil to be the manufacturer of gold; and when any men are destroyed by the falling in of the sides of the pits which they dig, they attribute the disaster to old Mulciber, who thus contrives to get an addition to his slaves below, employed at his forges and furnaces.

With the natural history of the Cameleon, the 2d volume commences. M. Golberry clearly ascertains that the changes of colour, which this animal exhibits, arise not from external objects, but from his internal feelings and sensations. He will not allow the Cameleon of courts to bear the smallest resemblance to the Cameleon of nature; who assumes no deceptive colours for the purpose of injuring his fellows, but on the contrary changes the tinges of its skin as indicating its own sufferings and afflictions. We think that M. Golberry's treatment of some of these delicate animals was too cruel, and that his experiments on starvation were carried farther than was necessary: but, having made this protest, we shall copy a part of the chapter:

'The fine green colour of the skin of this lizard, in its perfect state of health, causes it to be so far confounded with the leaves or grass in which it hides, that it is only discovered by chance: this beautiful colour is also its safeguard against those animals who would willingly hurt it, but are not able to distinguish or see it. This reptile therefore knows, that it is only by being confounded with leaves or grass, that it procures its food, and escapes its enemies: and, when deprived of these advantages by the loss of its liberty, being full of apprehension, terror, and fear, its life is only a torment; it becomes devoted to alarm and anguish, and a change is effected in its health, as well as in its natural colour.

'Hence,

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'Hence, whenever I caught a cameleon, either in the grass or on the branch of a tree, I observed, that in a few seconds a sensible alteration took place, not only in its fine colour, but also in the size of its body.

'I placed the animal on the arid sand on the floor, or in a cage; and soon after it began to turn yellow: it also soon, and insensibly, expired the air with which it was filled, and thus it became contracted to such a degree, that the diminution in the size of its body was perceptible to the naked eye. But on replacing my cameleon in the grass, or on a branch, it gradually recovered its fine green colour, and its body attained the usual rotundity.

'When I kept my cameleons in a cage, and plagued or tormented them, I saw that they laboured under anguish and rage, which they sensibly expressed by expiring the air so strongly, that its force became audible; soon after which, these animals grew lean, and their fine colour was tarnished. On continuing to torment them, the dull green became a yellow-green, and afterwards a yellow, spotted with red; then a yellow brown, spotted with red-brown; next a brown-grey, marked with black: at length my cameleons adopted different shades and became gradually more thin. These were the only colours I could succeed in making them adopt.

'After I had thus tormented them, and kept them prisoners for several days, I used to set them at liberty. I conveyed them to the grass or a tree, and soon, notwithstanding their black and meagre appearance, they resumed their green colour and their corpulence.

'Hence, from reiterated proofs I convinced myself, that in a state of perfect liberty the cameleon is always green and fat, while a state of captivity alters its colour, and affects its health.'

In a journey by land, which this traveller made in 1786 from the isle of St. Louis to Goree, after having traversed a desert, he halted in the valley of the two Gagnacks; and the impression which the agreeable prospect afforded, when contrasted with the general aridness of the country, he endeavours to convey to his readers. This description we shall not transcribe, but shall content ourselves with stating the size of the most astonishing tree in the world, growing in this valley, called by the natives *Baobab*; which measures, at its base, *an hundred and four feet in circumference*, and has a cavern in its trunk twenty feet in diameter and twenty-two feet high. The description of the Baobab or Calabash tree occupies a considerable portion of a long chapter.

We have not regularly followed M. Golberry through the three districts into which the Government of the Senegal is divided by this author; because it would have extended the present article to an immoderate length, if we had specified the numerous objects which form the substance of the narrative. Though a long chapter occurs relative to Sierra Leone, we can merely refer to it.

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Precautions are kindly given against the dangers of the climate of the part of western Africa that is situated between the 4th and 20th north parallels, to which those who visit this region may be induced to attend: but the chapter on the probable population of Africa affords matter more generally interesting. M. Golberry conceives the total of its population to amount to 160,000,000, and represents the climate and nature of Africa as tending to render its black inhabitants singularly happy:

'All the wants of the negroe, and all his pleasures, are satisfied without costing him the least trouble either in mind or body: his soul scarcely ever quits its peaceable indolence; alarms, uneasiness, and violent passions are almost entirely unknown to him; in consequence of his fatalism, he neither hopes for, nor fears any event, and submits to every thing without a murmur; in short his life passes in calmness and voluptuous carelessness, which constitute his supreme happiness: hence the negroes may be reckoned amongst the most favoured people of Nature.

'Such is part of the picture of the happy situation in which the negroe exists on his maternal soil. His mind being almost always tranquil and satisfied, is inaccessible to tedium, that fatal poison which afflicts only rich, enlightened, ambitious, and vain-glorious societies. Those men who come nearest to simple nature, are exempt from the fatal effects of this venom, which causes greater disorders and crimes than can well be imagined.

'Like children, the blacks of a mature age devote their attention for whole days together to futile occupations, and in conversations, which to us would appear only gossiping, but which, on that account, are inexhaustible: with such conversation these people incessantly amuse themselves, with a confidence and gaiety, of which our European societies scarcely afford an example.

'In all the countries which I visited, I saw those assemblies, that the Africans call palavers, or palabres, which were formed at sun-rise, and consisted of between thirty and forty blacks of all ages; they assembled either in a large hall, which they call the bentaba, or beneath the leafy branches of some large and beautiful tree in the village.

'They range themselves in a circle, and the oldest of the company begins the conversation, by reciting the little events of the preceding evening; but these become important, by the applications, reflections, and remembrances, to which they give rise.

'Soon afterwards the pipe makes it appearance; for the custom of smoking is doubtless general amongst all mankind: all these talkers smoke, not excepting the youngest of the company, and the prattling succeeds better on this account. The fumes of the tobacco enliven their brains, and increase their pleasure, as those of our delicate wines used formely to excite an amiable cheerfulness at our meals, when the charm was still further heightened by the sweets of friendship and urbanity.

'Gaming arrives in its turn, and two of the most clever in the company are chosen to play against each other; the general interest is divided

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divided between these two champions, but without jealousy, ill-nature, or the least dissention.

'There is a kind of game, to which I have often seen them give preference. It borders a little upon chess, and contains a degree of complexity which renders it difficult to be acquired. The ground, or the sand, serves for the chess board; for this purpose they prepare a small square surface, in which they plant, with a certain degree of order, some bits of wood or straw. It is on the clever displacing or removal of these strips, that the issue of the game depends.

'The time employed in the pleasure of talking, smoking, and gaming, is so seductive and attracting, that they cannot prevail on themselves to separate till dinner-time, and many would sooner lose their meals than abandon their amusement; but the women, who are always kind, attentive, and complaisant, do not forget their fathers, husbands, or brothers, but bring them kouskou, or rice, to which they almost always add some dainty bits.

'In this manner they pass the whole day, and towards evening, I often observed these coteries in the same place, and conducted with the same gaiety and spirit, the conversation being as animated as if it had just begun.

'At length night puts an end to these palavers, and the company devote themselves to dancing, which during the dry season is performed in the open air, and in rainy weather under the bentaba. The negresses are passionately fond of this amusement, and it is a fact, that for half the night, throughout the year, all the inhabitants of Africa are engaged in dancing.'—

'A thatched hut, the building of which cost nothing, some ells of common linen, and six pounds of millet, or rice, every day, are sufficient for lodging, feeding, and clothing a family, consisting of a father, mother, and four or five children. The negroe collects himself the materials necessary for the construction of his house, and he is his own builder. The women procure the cotton, and manufacture their clothes; twenty days labour per year, are sufficient to ensure an abundant supply of food, so that the existence of a negroe family may be said to be a gratuitous gift of nature, granted without expence or fatigue: hence celibacy is scarcely known in Africa: indeed it is so rare, that it attaches a sort of shame to those who adopt it.

'It ought to be understood, that in the general situation of the negroes on their natal soil, their life passes without labour, chagrin, or even care. Being always abandoned to a gentle apathy, exempt from the troubles and agitations which afflict Europeans; and their character being sober and moderate, the life of the negroes of Africa, upon an average, extends from sixty-five to seventy years, experiencing only an insensible alteration in their health and strength; an alteration which is particularly attributable to a perpetual and too abundant *transpiration*; and when death arrives, they meet the grim tyrant without the least murmur, and with a perfect submission to their inevitable fate. They always submit, without complaint, to that fatality, which, according to them, determines the events of life and death; and they support the latter without alarm or indeed with perfect tranquillity.'

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Thus persuaded of the happiness enjoyed by the negroe in his native land, M. Golberry might be expected to fulminate a Philippic against the patrons of the Slave Trade: but we find him its strenuous advocate. He regards the 80,000 negroes annually taken to the West Indies as bearing a small proportion to the total of African population; and he considers the trade as beneficial to humanity, because it has taught those who make captives in war 'to prefer the acquisition of useful articles to the executing of useless massacres.' It is to be observed, however, that his statement of the population is in a great measure gratuitous; and that his other position, which intimates that the Slave Trade tends rather to preserve than to destroy life, requires to be proved. We may fairly suppose that the temptation, which this trade offers, is a perpetual stimulus to war among the negroe tribes; and if the lives which are lost in these rencounters in the first instance, the subsequent deaths resulting from captivity, and the mortality on the passage, and in what is termed *Seasoning* in the colonies, be all taken into the account, we cannot readily admit the views of this traveller. At present, this topic can only be brought as a proof of the barbarous state of Africa, and of the mercenary spirit of Europeans: but M. Golberry hopes that the intercourse which trade promotes will be a means of effecting the civilization of Africa. If we are to judge by past experience, we see little ground for indulging in so brilliant a vision: but should this epoch ever arrive, we agree with him that the trade will no longer exist.—To explore the interior of Africa is desirable; and though the continuance of the Slave Trade affords us the means of prosecuting this purpose, we cannot think that it supplies 'the *only* effectual means.' Commercial relations might exist with Africa, which would as much tend to conciliate her towards Europeans as a traffic in the very blood and misery of her children. That the principles of slavery have been cherished in that country from the most remote antiquity, and that they seem there interwoven with the very rudiments of society, we are ready to admit; as well as what is observed by the traveller towards the conclusion of his work, that 'if we preach up the abolition of slavery, we should have against us, not only the whole of the free proprietary of Africa, who, with respect to the portion in slavery, are as two to three, but also all the cottage slaves, who are attached and devoted to their masters, contented with their fate, and are very often themselves the proprietors of a few slaves still more subordinate:' but, if such be the state of facts, if slavery be the radical vice of Africa, can our fostering it promote its cure? How is a country to be civilized, by exporting

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porting her inhabitants to nations from which they can never return?

The last chapter, which is entitled *Varieties*, (meaning miscellaneous matters,) exhibits a profusion of subjects. We have accounts of the tedium occasioned by the uniform clear sky of Africa—of the vegetation—tornadoes—apes—sepulchres—*oa constrictor*, or tennuy serpent—paroquet—a species of inebriating beer made from a root called *ningik*—palm-tree wine—punishment of crimes—cultivation of tobacco and the sugar-cane—dogs—serval or tiger-cat—pelican—tattooing—singing and music of the negroes—two beautiful negresses, the favourite women of a chief (these are delightful portraits)—swimming of the negroes—ambergris—dates—crocodiles, or caymans, and sharks, &c. &c. In the midst of these shreds and patches, is inserted an affecting tribute to the virtues of M. Golberry's favourite negroe *Taliba*; who, we are told, served him, during the whole time of his remaining in Africa, with a degree of zeal, fidelity, and devotion, which is very rarely manifested by an European domestic. This man was a free negroe, the only son of a free negress; and his attachment to his master, and affection to his mother, highly attract our esteem. M. Golberry, indeed, by bearing this public testimony of his regard for this negroe servant, as well as by other traits dispersed in these volumes, gives us a favourable opinion of the amiable qualities of his own mind; which are doubly valuable when combined with knowlege, and displayed by one who writes, from experience, a portion of the history of man.

M. Golberry speaks of his map as executed with care, according to the most recent and authentic observations, though not on a large scale.

The translation, which, we are told, was performed in the short space of twenty days, bears evident marks of haste: yet we are surprized that verbal blemishes are not more numerous. If Mr. Blagdon was obliged to employ a galloping pen, some faults on this account are excusable: but, if this necessity did not exist, rapidity of labour is no apology to the public for imperfect execution.—These volumes form the 3d and 4th of Mr. B.'s collection of Voyages and Travels: the 1st and 2d, containing Denon's Travels in Egypt, were mentioned in our 40th Vol. p. 86; the 5th, 6th, 7th and 8th, comprizing Pallas's Travels in Russia, will be found in the *Catalogue* part of this Review.

M. Golberry's plans respecting Western Africa contemplate not only the extension of the commerce of France in that quarter of the globe, but the exclusion of all British influence; and though we must approve the patriotism of this intelligent traveller,

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veller, the operation of the same principle demands us to direct the attention of our government to this subject, in order that the projects of France may be resisted, and the interests of our African commerce secured on the return of peace. A British Naval Officer, in a work intitled "African Memoranda," which we have just seen, adverts to the tendency of M. Golberry's speculations, as they affect our own country; and we shall hope, in due time, to detail the substance of his observations.

ART. VIII. *The Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London, abridged,* by Charles Hutton, LL.D. F.R.S. George Shaw, M.D. F.R.S. F.L.S. and Richard Pearson, M.D. F.A.S. 4to. 10s. 6d. each Part, or 2l. 2s. per Volume. C. and R. Baldwin.

IT is not, perhaps, exceeding the line of our duty, to give a brief statement of the plan, nature, and progress of the present undertaking; which relates to a work of standard merit in the philosophic world, and which must therefore be interesting to all scientific men. Of the eighteen volumes, of which it is intended that this abridgment shall consist, three are before us: but it must be needless for us to say that we have not attempted the regular and complete perusal of them. We have occasionally selected a paper, however, and compared it with its original under its amended and sometimes curtailed form; and, as far as such comparisons have extended, we see no reason for being dissatisfied with the care and judgment of the gentlemen concerned in this laborious duty.

A principal cause of this publication, as stated in the Prospectus, is the extreme scarcity of the original collection; which consists of 92 volumes. What obstacles, then, prevented a *new Edition?* The answer is; the high price to which such an edition must amount, perhaps 90 guineas: while the price of this abridgment is only 36 guineas; many useless or uninteresting papers are omitted; and frequent biographical notices of eminent persons are interspersed.—Had booksellers and printers, however, intended to be œconomical, a new edition might have been effected at a cheaper rate, and would have been favourably received. Why is it desirable to possess the volumes of the Philosophical Transactions? Because it is curious, and often highly important, to consult the original sources of information; and to read opinions and discoveries in the very words of their authors. Will a nice and scrupulous person be satisfied that the present editors, with all their caution and judgment, have not omitted, in an emended memoir,

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moir, some material circumstance? Will he be satisfied that an omitted memoir, only noticed as containing nothing particular, really merits that account? He may have full reliance on the care, the zeal, and the ability of the editors: but he cannot forget that they are only three persons, and that the opinions, discoveries, &c. to be preserved and recorded, belong to some hundreds.—If, however, the present work be not the repository of the original deeds by which English Science has been established, enriched, and embellished, it is a collection pregnant with amusement and instruction. That a person who peruses this abridgment shall obtain much profound, useful, and ornamental knowlege, there is no doubt. Yet we hesitate in affirming that a student may learn a particular science,—chemistry, for instance,—to the greatest advantage, in these volumes. We are thus led to remark that the middle course, which the Conductors have pursued, stands without its adequate justification. The interest of the work, as being *a copy* of the original memoirs, is destroyed by its frequent omissions and mutilations; while its value as a scientific Encyclopedia is less than it might have been, had the matter been refined and run over again.—These remarks may perhaps be said to originate in whimsical or ill-natured scrupulousness: but we feel no such consciousness; and, whatever comment be put on our opinions, we have not yet been taught the art of concealing them. The biographical notices, we think, are also too short: they remind us of the lives of Hector and Pompey at the end of Ainsworth's Dictionary.

The papers written in Latin, &c. in the original, are here translated: except in special cases; as when, for instance, decency requires that the vigor of old Parr should be "veil'd in the obscurity of a learned language."—The English composition is not suffered to remain in its old form: but its spelling is modernized, and the *eth* termination of verbs is made to give place to the *s*. In the account of Huygens's Horologium, we find the following sentence: 'which a nail by its circumrotation *designs* in the air;'—*designeth* in the original. Now here, as so many words are occasionally altered, a phrase equally forcible and more familiar to an English ear should have been chosen. In the same page, occurs a troublesome typographical error;—'the *other* has,' for, we suppose, the *author* has. In our copy, the plates of volume the second are bound up with volume 3d, which is without its proper engravings.—As we have already said, many original papers are wholly inserted, others retrenched, and others entirely omitted. The causes of insertion and omission may, in general terms, be assigned to be the degrees of merit in the respective papers: but a rule for

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for accepting and rejecting cannot be stated in precise terms; it must fail or bewilder in its practical application; and we are unable, in the volumes before us, to ascertain the operation of such a rule. Many papers are inserted which we deem of little interest and importance, and some are excluded which we think should have been suffered to retain their places. The account of Perrault's Translation is introduced, but Wallis's method of Tangents is discarded; and in some instances we discern something like caprice. The subject, however, is not without its difficulty; for we believe that every candid man would confess, that he must have been frequently embarrassed to determine whether a paper ought or ought not to be admitted.

In order to comprize within 18 volumes all the matter of the Transactions, the process of real abridgment and retrenchment, it appears to us, must proceed more rapidly than it hitherto has advanced.

The work is very handsomely published, with respect to paper, typography, and engravings. Some copies are printed on royal paper, price 18s. each part.

ART. IX. *Memoirs of the Life of Dr. Darwin*, chiefly during his Residence at Lichfield, with Anecdotes of his Friends, and Criticisms on his Writings. By Anna Seward. 8vo. 7s. 6d. Boards. Johnson. 1804.

OUR review of this volume has been delayed, in expectation of the promised publication on the same subject, by Mr. Bilsborrow, which would have enabled us to give a complete view of the life and literary progress of the celebrated writer here commemorated. As that work has not appeared, we must now attend to the materials laid before us, though avowedly incomplete. The present volume might indeed have been more properly denominated, *Recollections*, than *Memoirs*; for although it was highly proper that Miss Seward should only communicate what she knew with certainty, yet many readers may have been disappointed, on finding that Dr. Darwin is introduced to them at the age of twenty-four, and dismissed at fifty, on his removal to Derby. The task of a biographer is not so strict and severe as that of an historian, but it is expected to be complete.—The only exception, which occurs to us, is that of the *Mémoires de Grammont*, the irregularities of which are compensated by the exquisite wit of the author; yet even in a work of mere pleasantry, there is a charm in order; and serious compositions are lost without it.

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It must be acknowleged, however, that the period selected by our fair author is peculiarly interesting. It exhibits the rise of Dr. Darwin's celebrity; and it introduces us to his literary circle in those moments in which the early attractions of study possess their strongest fascination. The names of his associates are calculated also to excite attention, and they afford an opportunity for supplying some curious anecdotes. Yet that part of the volume, which will most claim the reader's attention, is that which contains Miss Seward's critical observations; since the comments of a poetess on the works of a poet are not often to be obtained. We shall, in our hypercriticism, treat them with due respect, and with the freedom which they equally demand.

We extract Miss Seward's animated description of Dr. Darwin's person and manners, from the opening of her memoirs:

'Dr. Erasmus Darwin was the son of a private gentleman, near Newark, in Nottinghamshire. He came to Lichfield to practise physic in the autumn of the year 1756, at the age of twenty-four; bringing high recommendations from the university of Edinburgh, in which he had studied, and from that of Cambridge, to which he belonged.

'He was somewhat above the middle size, his form athletic, and inclined to corpulence; his limbs too heavy for exact proportion. The traces of a severe small-pox; features, and countenance, which, when they were not animated by social pleasure, were rather saturnine than sprightly; a stoop in the shoulders, and the then professional appendage, a large full-bottomed wig, gave at that early period of life, an appearance of nearly twice the years he bore. Florid health, and the earnest of good humour, a sunny smile, on entering a room, and on first accosting his friends, rendered, in his youth, that exterior agreeable, to which beauty and symmetry had not been propitious.

'He stammered extremely; but whatever he said, whether gravely or in jest, was always well worth waiting for, though the inevitable impression it made might not always be pleasant to individual self-love. Conscious of great native elevation above the general standard of intellect, he became, early in life, sore upon opposition, whether in argument or conduct, and always revenged it by sarcasm of very keen edge. Nor was he less impatient of the sallies of egotism and vanity, even when they were in so slight a degree, that strict politeness would rather tolerate than ridicule them. Dr. Darwin seldom failed to present their caricature in jocose but wounding irony. If these ingredients of colloquial despotism were discernible in *unworn* existence, they increased as it advanced, fed by an evergrowing reputation within and without the pale of medicine.

'Extreme was his scepticism to human truth. From that cause he often disregarded the accounts his patients gave of themselves, and rather chose to collect his information by indirect inquiry and by cross-examining them, than from their voluntary testimony. That distrust and that habit were probably favourable to his skill

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in discovering the origin of diseases, and thence to his pre-eminent success in effecting their cure;—but they impressed his mind and tinctured his conversation with an apparent want of confidence in mankind, which was apt to wound the ingenuous and confiding spirit, whether seeking his medical assistance, or his counsel as a friend. Perhaps this proneness to suspicion mingled too much of art in his wisdom.'

Professional men of different classes, lawyers as well as physicians, must become early sensible of the difficulty of ascertaining facts, even when there exists no intention to deceive: but Dr. D. appears from this account to have carried his distrust of common testimony to an unreasonable and embarrassing degree. Many states of disease occur, in which an examination, such as the author has described, would greatly increase the sufferings of the patient, by irritating his feelings.

We are subsequently informed that Dr. D. was a great enemy to the use of wine and spirits.—In this, as in a general rule, we should agree with him: but we cannot coincide with his recommendation of home-made wines; which is indeed inconsistent with his aversion to spirits, for brandy is an ingredient in most of these domestic productions. The hearty and mixed feeding, which he inculcated from his own taste, and enforced in so singular a manner by his example, is to many constitutions equally noxious with excess in fermented liquors. In dietetic prescriptions, physicians are apt to consider the food which they themselves prefer, as the most salutary for their patients;—excepting always the Doctor mentioned by Rabelais, who recommended to his friends only those parts of the partridges which he himself did not choose to eat.

It appears that Dr. D. long represt his poetical genius, from an apprehension that it might prove injurious to his professional reputation.—Miss Seward has expressed this fact, rather quaintly, though in her peculiar style; and she goes on to say:

'Occasional little pieces, however, stole at seldom occurring periods from his pen; though he cautiously precluded their passing the press, before his latent genius for poetry became unveiled to the public eye in it's copious and dazzling splendour. Most of these minute gems have stolen into newspapers and magazines, since the impregnable rock, on which his medicinal and philosophical reputation were placed, induced him to contend for *that* species of fame, which should entwine the Parnassian laurel with the balm of Pharmacy.'

On this singular phraseology, we cannot avoid remarking, that the word *medical* should have been substituted for *medicinal*; and that Pharmacy has nothing to do in the business, for

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for Dr. D. never was an apothecary:—but more of this hereafter.

The rise of Dr. Darwin's professional character, from the successful treatment of a dangerous case, and his first marriage, in 1757, to Miss Howard, 'of the Close of Lichfield, a blooming and lovely lady of eighteen,' are next detailed. The record of this Lady's early fate is uncommonly interesting. Physicians have too often to complain, with their master,

"*Nec prosunt Domino quæ prosunt omnibus artes.*" Ovid.

We are next entertained with an account of the Doctor's house in Lichfield; (which, according to the spirit of the times, should have been accompanied with *plates in acqua tinta*;) and with anecdotes of Mr. Edgeworth, and the benevolent Mr. Day, of whose person we have an excellent description:

'Mr. Day looked the philosopher. Powder and fine clothes were, at that time, the appendages of gentlemen. Mr. Day wore not either. He was tall and stooped in the shoulders, full made, but not corpulent; and in his meditative and melancholy air a degree of awkwardness and dignity were blended. We found his features interesting and agreeable amidst the traces of a severe small pox. There was a sort of weight upon the lids of his large hazle eyes; yet when he declaimed,

——————"Of good and evil,
"Passion, and apathy, and glory, and shame,"

very expressive were the energies gleaming from them, beneath the shade of sable hair, which, Adam-like, curled about his brows. Less graceful, less amusing, less brilliant than Mr. E., but more highly imaginative, more classical, and a deeper reasoner; strict integrity, energetic friendship, open-handed bounty, sedulous and diffusive charity, greatly overbalanced, on the side of virtue, the tincture of misanthropic gloom and proud contempt of common-life society, that marked the peculiar character, which shall unfold itself on these pages.'

Miss S. also presents us with some verses composed by this excentric character; which it would be unfair to criticize, because they bear evident marks of haste and carelessness. It was the misfortune of this man of real worth and good intentions, to attempt a virtue beyond nature;—a degree of perfection in his opinion, but in reality an absurdity. 'Mr. Day was a rigid moralist, who proudly imposed on himself cold abstinence, even from the most innocent pleasures; nor would he allow an action to be virtuous, which was performed upon any hope of reward here, or hereafter.' To this unfortunate affectation of impracticable virtue, Mr. Day added an enthusiasm for the extravagancies of Rousseau; which calumny has

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intitled Philosophical, but which Rousseau himself did not deem worthy of that appellation.— Mr. Day joined with a friend, in educating two female foundlings, with the view of making one of them his wife: but

'His experiments had not the success he wished and expected. Her spirit could not be armed against the dread of pain, and the appearance of danger. When he dropped melted sealing wax upon her arms she did not endure it heroically, nor when he fired pistols at her petticoats, which she believed to be charged with balls, could she help starting aside, or suppress her screams.

'When he tried her fidelity in secret-keeping, by telling her of well invented dangers to himself, in which greater danger would result from it's being discovered that he was *aware* of them, he once or twice detected her having imparted them to the servants, and to her playfellows.

'She betrayed an averseness to the study of books, and of the rudiments of science, which gave little promise of ability, that should, one day, be responsible for the education of youths who were to emulate the Gracchi.'

To such reveries did this worthy being sacrifice his happiness, and eventually his life; for after having declined to espouse his fair pupil, having unsuccessfully addressed two other ladies, and having at last married a woman who subjected her own better sense to his preposterous scheme of living, he was destroyed by attempting to ride a favourite colt, which he would not permit to be broken in according to the corrupt modes of established society. It is impossible to avoid loving and pitying so remarkable a character *, a spoiled child of Nature and Fortune, who rebelled against both, and threw away every real blessing in a course of self-denial by which no one could be edified, and in unavailing endeavours to act from abstract motives. He forgot, or disregarded, the well founded remark of old Horace,

"*Vitiis nemo sine nascitur: optimus ille est*
Qui minimis urgetur."——Sat. i. 3. lin. 68

On this instructive story, an excellent and useful novel might be composed; for though few men can be enabled by their situation to emulate Mr. Day's excentricities in their full extent, sufficient scope will remain for the vexation of domestic circles, in a very humble imitation of them. Return we, at length, to Dr. Darwin, whom we now find in company with Sir Brooke Boothby. 'A votary to botanic science, a deep reasoner, and a *clear-sighted* politician, is Sir Brooke Boothby, as his convincing refutation of that splen-

* While living, indeed, we well knew and much loved him; now that he is dead, we shall ever lament his fate, and respect his memory.

did,

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did, dazzling, and misleading sophistry, Burke on the French Revolution, has proved.'

In speaking of Mr. Munday, another of the Dr.'s associates, Miss S. regrets that he cannot be persuaded to print his Poem on Needwood Forest, from his dread of Criticism: but why should this lady declaim on 'the illiberality of self-elected censors?'—

"*Non obtusa adeo gestamus pectora Pœni.*"

Miss Seward should consider that she cannot injure the credit of Reviewers, without detracting from her own reputation.

The anecdote of Dr. Darwin's swimming on shore from a convivial party on the water, and haranguing the people of Nottingham on the necessity of opening their windows for ventilation, might very well have been suppressed. The list of literary characters in Litchfield, also, who were before unknown to fame, (excepting the Author's father, the Rev. Mr. Seward, editor of Beaumont and Fletcher,) somewhat reminds us of the Club immortalized by "P. P. Clerk of this Parish."—Into the reasons for that estrangement which subsisted between Dr. Darwin and the great ornament of Litchfield, it is hardly necessary to enter. Dr. D.'s scepticism in religion supplies an easy solution of the question.

Miss S. next notices 'that great work,' the Zoonomia.—On this subject, our observations have been so copious, in former volumes, that we may be excused from reverting to it; and we shall only remark, that it has not produced the change in Medical doctrines and practice which Miss S. appears to have expected. It is better calculated for speculative readers than for students, or practitioners of the healing art; and much of the pathology was discussed and dismissed by the judicious part of the faculty, as it was anticipated in the prior work of John Brown.

The succeeding event, of Dr. Darwin's romantic attachment to Mrs. Pole, of Radburn, whom he afterward married, is detailed with interest, and serves to introduce some pretty verses.

Respecting a matter of smaller apparent consequence, the formation of a garden near Lichfield, we find a curious literary anecdote. Miss Seward first visited the Dr.'s botanic garden alone; seated in which, she produced the following poem:

'O, come not here, ye Proud, whose breasts infold
Th' insatiate wish of glory, or of gold;
O come not ye, whose branded foreheads wear
Th' eternal frown of envy, or of care;
For you no Dryad decks her fragrant bowers,
For you her sparkling urn no Naiad pours;
Unmark'd by you light Graces skim the green,
And hovering Cupids aim their shafts unseen.

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'But thou! whose mind the well-attemper'd ray
Of Taste and Virtue, lights with purer day;
Whose finer sense each soft vibration owns,
Mute and unfeeling to *discorded* tones;
Like the fair flower that spreads its lucid form
To meet the sun, but shuts it to the storm;
For thee my borders nurse the glowing wreath,
My fountains murmur, and my zephyrs breathe;
My painted birds their vivid plumes unfold,
And insect armies wave their wings of gold.
And if with thee some halpess maid should stray,
Disastrous love companion of her way,
O lead her timid step to yonder glade,
Whose weeping rock incumbent alders shade!
There, as meek Evening wakes the temperate breeze,
And moonbeams glimmer through the trembling trees,
The rills, that gurgle round, shall sooth her ear,
The weeping rock shall number tear for tear;
And as sad Philomel, alike forlorn,
Sings to the night, reclining on her thorn,
While, at sweet intervals, each falling *note*
Sighs in the gale, and whispers round the *grot*,
The sister woe shall calm her aching breast,
And softest slumbers steal her cares to rest.

'Thus spoke the * Genius as he stept along,
And bade these lawns to Peace and Truth belong;
Down the steep slopes he led, with modest skill,
The grassy pathway and the vagrant rill;
Stretch'd o'er the marshy vale the willowy mound,
Where shines the lake amid the cultur'd ground;
Rais'd the young woodland, smooth'd the wavy green,
And gave to Beauty all the quiet scene.

'O! may no ruder step these bowers prophane,
No midnight wassailers deface the plain;
And when the tempests of the wintry day
Blow golden Autumn's varied leaves away,
Winds of the North, restrain your icy gales,
Nor chill the bosom of these HALLOWED VALES† !

'When Miss Seward gave this little poem to Dr. Darwin, he seemed pleased with it, and said, "I shall send it to the periodical publications;

'* By the Genius of the place is meant its first cultivator, Dr. Darwin.'

'† These verses, in their original state, as inscribed here, will be found in Mr. Shaw's History of Staffordshire, published in 1798, near four years before the death of Dr. Darwin; see Article *Lichfield*, page 347. Their author chose to assert her claim to them in the Doctor's lifetime, since they had appeared in the periodical publications many years before the Botanic Garden passed the press, and had borne her signature.'

but

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but it ought to form the exordium of a great work. The Linnean System is unexplored poetic ground, and an happy subject for the muse. It affords fine scope for poetic landscape; it suggests metamorphoses of the Ovidian kind, though reversed. Ovid made men and women into flowers, plants, and trees. You should make flowers, plants, and trees, into men and women. I," continued he, "will write the notes, which must be scientific; and you shall write the verse."

'Miss S. observed, that, besides her want of botanic knowledge, the plan was not strictly proper for a female pen; that she felt how eminently it was adapted to the efflorescence of his own fancy.

'He objected the professional danger of coming forward an acknowledged poet. It was pleaded, that on his first commencing medical professor, there might have been danger; but that, beneath the unbounded confidence his experienced skill in medicine had obtained from the public, all risque of injury by reputation flowing in upon him from a new source was precluded; especially since the subject of the poetry, and still more the notes would be connected with pathology.

'Dr. Darwin took his friend's advice, and very soon began his great poetic work; but previously, a few weeks after they were composed, sent the verses Miss S. wrote in his Botanic Garden, to the Gentleman's Magazine, and in her name. From thence they were copied in the Annual Register; but without consulting her, he had substituted for the last six lines, eight of his own. He afterwards, and again without the knowledge of their author, made them the exordium to the first part of his poem, published, for certain reasons, some years after the second part had appeared. No acknowledgment was made that those verses were the work of another pen. Such acknowledgment ought to have been made, especially since they passed the press in the name of their real author. They are somewhat altered in the exordium to Dr. Darwin's Poem, and eighteen lines of his own are interwoven with them.'

The catterwauling correspondence which follows, between the Author and Dr. Darwin, in the characters of two cats, ought to have been consigned to oblivion.—The story of Dr. D.'s having superscribed a letter 'to Dr. Franklin in America,' and of his intention to have directed it to that celebrated man "*in the World*," might also have been spared. The noted Quack, Dr. Misaubin, is known to have claimed the latter address as his right, before either Franklin or Darwin was in existence.

With the removal of Dr. Darwin to Derby, which was stipulated at the period of his second marriage, the thread of Miss Seward's narrative properly closes; and the remaining part of the volume is chiefly occupied by her criticisms on the Dr's. Poetical Works, which we shall now proceed to consider.

After some desultory remarks on a piece, which the Author ascribes to what she is pleased to call *the Darwinian School* of

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Poetry, Miss S. adopts, from Mr. Fellowes, the following distinction;

"In perspicuity, which is one of the first excellences in poetic as well as prose composition, this author has perhaps few equals. He is clear, even when describing the most intricate operations of nature, or the most complex works of art; and there is a lucid transparency in his style through which we see objects in their exact figure and proportion; but Dr. Darwin's poetry wants sensation; that sort of excellence which, while it enables us to see distinctly the objects described, makes us feel them acting on our nerves."

A considerable inaccuracy is observable in this passage, in the use of the word *sensation*. The writer means, we suppose, that Dr. Darwin's poetry is deficient in feeling; the term *sensation* is metaphysical, and can only be applied with propriety to impressions felt by a sentient being. A poem may inspire sensations, which it cannot be said to possess. Miss Seward has laboured to prove, however, that there is a kind of vivid poetry which does *not* excite sensation, and a kind of vivid poetry which *does* excite it. She finds an instance of the former in the Botanic Garden, as the critical reader will easily conceive; and of the latter (*quale portentum!*) in a Sonnet by Mr. C. Lloyd! Miss Seward's Prose was not deficient in producing *sensation* with us in this case, but it was far from being of the approving kind. To us, Mr. Lloyd's poetry had always conveyed the *sensation* expressed by the Deserter, in the "What-d'ye call it;"

"Oh! 'tis so moving, I can read no more!"——

In the fair author's comparison between Shakspeare's description of the glow-worm, and that of Darwin, she has assigned very ingenious reasons for the superior interest excited by the former: but she might have added a more obvious cause. When Darwin calls the glow worm,

"Star of the earth, and diamond of the night,"

every judge of poetry feels the line to be a mere conceit; while in Shakspeare the image is *natural*, and therefore touching.

Another passage quoted by Miss Seward,

"And now the rising moon, with lustre pale,
O'er heav'ns dark arch unfurls her milky veil,"

reminds us, rather oddly, of Pope's celebrated but very unfaithful translation from the Iliad;

"As when the moon, refulgent lamp of night,
O'er heav'n's pure azure spreads her sacred light."

It bears a still closer resemblance to two lines in Comus:

"Am

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" Am I deceiv'd, or does a sable cloud
Turn forth her silver lining on the night?"

We shall now give Miss Seward's general view of Dr. D.'s poetical merits:

'Dr. Darwin's excellence consists in delighting the eye, the taste, and the fancy, by the strength, distinctness, elegance, and perfect originality of his pictures; and in delighting the ear by the rich cadence of his numbers; but the passions are generally asleep, and seldom are the nerves thrilled by his imagery, impressive and beauteous as it is, or by his landscapes, with all their vividness.

'It may, however, be justly pleaded for his great work, that it's ingenious and novel plan did not involve any claim upon the affections. We are presented with an highly imaginative and splendidly descriptive poem, whose successive pictures alternately possess the sublimity of Michael Angelo, the correctness and elegance of Raphael, with the glow of Titian; whose landscapes have, at times, the strength of Salvator, and at others the softeness of Claude; whose numbers are of stately grace, and artful harmony; while its allusions to ancient and modern history and fable, and its interspersion of recent and extraordinary anecdotes, render it extremely entertaining. Adapting the past and recent discoveries in natural and scientific philosophy to the purposes of heroic verse, the Botanic Garden forms a new class in poetry, and by so doing, gives to the British Parnassus a wider extent than it possessed in Greece, or in ancient, or modern Rome.

'Nor is it only that this composition takes unbeaten ground, and forms an additional order in the fanes of the Muses, it forms that new order so brilliantly, that though it may have many imitators, it will probably never have an equal in it's particular class; neither would it's style apply happily to subjects less intrinsically picturesque. The species of praise here given to this work is all that its author desired to excite. We have no right to complain of any writer, or to censure him for not possessing those powers at which he did not aim, and which are not necessarily connected with his plan.'

Instead of subscribing implicitly to this spirited panegyric, we are compelled, by a regard to justice, to observe that, if there be merit in the peculiar manner of Dr. Darwin's versification, it has been anticipated in a production, little known, intitled "*Universal Beauty*, a philosophical Poem," by Henry Brooke, Esq. author of several other poems and plays, of which some account and some slight specimens will be found in the 59th Vol. of the M. R. (Oct. 1778.) p. 241.—The resemblance between this composition and the *Botanic Garden*, however, had not occurred to our minds, till it was lately intimated to the world by some fellow labourers in the vineyard of criticism. An anonymous copy of this neglected Poem, which was printed in 1735, has been cited on the occasion; and a re-printed copy, in 1778, is now before us, from which we shall make ex-

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tracts sufficient to decide the opinion of our readers respecting this alleged similarity.

It would lead us far beyond our bounds to trace the plan of this poem, which embraces a much wider range than the Botanic Garden: but the following passages will speak for themselves;

" Thus answering lively to organic sense,
The plants, half animate, their pow'rs dispense;
The mouth's analogy their root displays,
And for th' intestine viscera purveys;
Their liquors thro' respondent vessels flow,
And organ like their fibrous membranes grow;
Nor yet inadequate their congruous use
Of mucilages, lymph, and lacteal juice;
The floods consimilary ducts receive,
And glands refine the separated wave;
Redounding vapours thro' the pores transpire,
And for the fresh ingredient guests retire.
Revers'd, their trachæ operate from beneath,
And through the trunk aërial conduits breathe;
Their ligneous fibres, with continuous length,
Equivalent, compact a bony strength;
But form'd elastic, with inclining shade,
Their yielding stems each stormy gust evade *;
— — — — — — — — — —
— — — — — — — — — —
" Thus mantling snug beneath a verdant trail,
The creepers draw their horizontal tail;
Wide o'er the bank the plantal reptile bends,
Adown its stem the rooty fringe depends,
The feeble boughs with anchoring safety binds,
Nor leaves precarious to insulting winds *.
— — — — — — — — — —
" Nor blush, thou rose, tho' bashful thy array,
Transplanted chaste within the raptur'd lay;
Tho' every bush, and warbled spray we sing,
And with the linnet gratulate the spring;
Sweep o'er the lawn, or revel on the plain,
Or gaze the florid, or the fragrant scene;
The flowers' forensic beauties now admire,
Th' impalement, foliation, down, attire,
Couch'd in the pannicle, or mantling veil,
That intercepts the keen, or drenching gale;
Its infant-bud here swath'd with fostering care,
Or fledg'd, and opening to the ambient air *."
— — — — — — — — — —

We beg that we may not be understood to admire the inaccuracies which appear in Mr. Brooke's verses. His incorrect

* Universal Beauty, Book III.

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rhimes, which, perhaps, were occasioned by an Irish education; his boldness in using new words, which are sometimes little better than barbarisms; and his admission of inelegant terms of expression; certainly cannot be vindicated. In most of these respects, Dr. Darwin is much superior: but we must regard Mr. Brooke, if not as his model, at least as his original. We now proceed with our proofs.—The following description of the Lady-Cow, and the accompanying simile, are nearly in the best style of that school, which, if it must have a termination in *an*, must now, instead of Darwinian, be styled *Brookian*.

" Or who a twofold apparatus share,
Natives of earth, and habitants of air;
Like warriors stride, oppress'd with shining mail,
But furl'd, beneath their silken pennons veil;
Deceiv'd our fellow reptile we admire,
His bright endorsement, and compact attire,
When lo! the latent springs of motion play,
And rising lids disclose the rich inlay;
The tissued wing its folded membrane frees,
And with blithe quavers fans the gath'ring breeze;
Elate towards heaven the beauteous wonder flies,
And leaves the mortal wrapp'd in deep surprize.

" So when the guide led Tobit's youthful heir,
Elect, to win the seven-times widow'd fair,
Th' angelic form, conceal'd in human guise,
Deceiv'd the search of his associate's eyes,
Till swift each charm bursts forth like issuing flame,
And circling rays confess his heavenly frame;
The zodiac round his waist divinely burns,
And waving radiance o'er his plumage burns:
In awful transports wrapt, the youth admires,
While light from earth the dazzling shape aspires *."

That change from the chrysalis to the butterfly, which so strongly influenced Dr. Darwin that he misapplied it to the sublime tenet of the Resurrection of mankind, is depicted in these glowing colours by Mr. Brooke:

" The fulness now of circling time arrives;
Each from the long, the mortal sleep revives;
The tombs pour forth their renovated dead,
And, like a dream, all former scenes are fled.
But O! what terms expressive may relate
The change, the splendor of their new form'd state?
Their texture, nor compos'd of filmy skin,
Of cumbrous flesh without, or bone within,
— — — — — — — — — —

* Universal Beauty, Book V.

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In every eye ten thousand brilliants blaze,
And living pearls the vast horizon gaze;
Gemm'd o'er their heads the mines of India gleam,
And heaven's own wardrobe has array'd their frame;
Each spangled back bright sprinkling specks adorn,
Each plume imbibes the rosy tinctured morn;
Spread on each wing the florid seasons glow,
Shaded and verg'd with the celestial bow,
Where colours blend an ever-varying dye,
And wanton in their gay exchanges vie."

Again,

"See where Behemoth's pillar'd fabric stands?
His shade extensive cools the distant lands *;
Encamp'd, an army on his shoulder lies,
And o'er his back proud citadels arise †."

Lastly, though not in place, we shall extract the address to Venus Urania, the figurative deity of the poem, by whom the author understands the beauty of the creation; after which we shall leave the reader to consult his Botanic Garden, and Temple of Nature, if any doubt remain on his mind relative to Dr. Darwin's acquaintance with Mr. Brooke's performance:

"Or rather thou, whom ancient prophet stiles
Venus Urania! born the babe of smiles,
When from the deep thy bright emergence sprung,
And nature on thy form divinely hung;
Whose steps, by Loves and Graces kiss'd, advance,
And laughing Hours lead on the sprightly dance;
While Time, within eternal hinges bound,
Harmonious moves on golden hinges round — — — —.
Such, Goddess! thro' this virgin foliage shine;
Let kindling beauties glow thro' every line,
And every eye confess the work divine ‡."

Our own opinion of Dr. Darwin, as a poet and a philosopher, stands recorded already in our volumes; and if we are now compelled to deny him originality in his style of versification, we do not however detract from the patient care with which he polished his lines, and worked his colours, till they became perhaps but too brilliant.

The closing event of Dr. Darwin's life has been so often re-

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* "And his vast shadow darkens all the land."
Darwin's Œconomy of Vegetation.
He has repeated this thought.

† Univ. Beauty, Book V. ‡ Universal Beauty, Book I.

peated,

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peated, and is given here with so little variation from the public papers of the time, that we shall omit it *.

After this long review of Miss Seward's book, it remains that we should pay a little attention to her style, which has struck us as very uncommon: we wish that we could add, excellent. It has frequently occurred to us, as a matter of duty, to notice the elegance of Miss Seward's poetical composition; it now becomes a painful task to point out the great defects of her prose. The affectation of saying common things in an unusual manner is the bane of good writing. If Johnson has not escaped censure on this account, what shall we say of such passages as the following, which have so much of the wrong, and nothing of the merit of his manner?

'This apprehended injudiciousness of the fire-work simile suggests the remark that a few such erratic luxuriances of a picturesque fancy, together with the peculiar construction of the Darwinian verse, and it's lavish personification, enabled an highly ingenious satirist to burlesque the Loves of the Plants. by the Loves of the Triangles. Eminently fortunate for its purpose was the thought of transforming cubes, and cones, and cylinders, and other technical terms of mathematic and mechanic science, into nymphs and swains, enamoured of each other. The verse of this ironical poem is not only Darwinian, but it is beautifully Darwinian.'

We have scarcely met with a more unhappy passage than the ensuing; in which Miss S. mentions the occasion of her beginning these memoirs, at the request of Dr. R. Darwin, of Shrewsbury:

'In *purposed* obedience, these *records* were begun, but they became too *extended* to form only materials for another person's composition;

* Before we finally close this part of the book, it may be right to insert a note which we have received respecting a passage to which Miss Seward is desirous of giving extensive contradiction;

"The Author of the Memoirs of Dr. Darwin, since they were published, has discovered, on the attestation of his family, and of the other persons present at the juncture, that the statement given of his exclamation, page 46, on the death of Mr. Erasmus Darwin, is entirely without foundation; and that the Doctor, on that melancholy event, gave, amongst his own family, proofs of strong sensibility at the time, and of succeeding regard to the memory of his son, which he seemed to have a pride in concealing from the world. In justice to his memory, she is desirous to correct the misinformation she had received, and will therefore be obliged to the Editor of the Monthly Review to notice the circumstance in the criticism of the book, since, unless a second edition should be called for, she has no means so effectual of counteracting the mistake."

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and too impartial to pass with propriety through the *filial channel*, though *fervently* just to the excellencies of the *commemorated*.'

Not only idiom but grammar is shocked by some of these expressions, as in many other places we have had occasion to remark; for example, 'his late years friend *.'—In others, are curious instances of the mock-heroic: 'Mr. Vyse was not only a man of learning, but of *Prioric talents in the Metrical Impromptu*.'

> "And thou, Dalhousie, the great God of War;
> *Lieutenant-Colonel to the Earl of Mar!*"

In stepping aside from her immediate purpose to criticize Cowper's translation of the Iliad, the original of which it appears that Miss S. does not understand, she uses these aukward expressions; 'that *cramp literality* which *hobbles* through his version.' Surely the lady did not mean in this passage to be 'the GREAT SUBLIME she draws.'

At p. 181. speaking of the use of the spondee in poetical composition, Miss S. adds an explanation of this metrical term, which in a note she says is intended '*for the ladies*.' Surely this passage must have been the addition of some *male* friend.

We shall proceed no farther in this unpleasant inquiry. Whatever Miss Seward may have added to the fame of her deceased friend, we are clearly of opinion that our language has gained no accession of either elegance or perspicuity from the volume before us.

ART. X. *Song of Songs:* or sacred Idyls Translated from the original Hebrew, with Notes critical and explanatory. By John Mason Good. 8vo. pp. 250. 7s. 6d. Boards. Kearsley.

WERE we insensible to the merits of this truly elegant and classical production, we should lie open to an impeachment of our taste: but, while we present our warmest thanks to Mr. Good for the high gratification which he has afforded us, by his translation of that portion of the amatory effusions of the wise Hebrew king which has descended to our times†, we must confess that we perceive not sufficient reason for the new principle of arrangement which he has adopted; and that we remain altogether unconvinced by those ingenious arguments, which he has employed to prove that the Song of Songs contains a sublime mystical allegory. This second opinion appears, in

* Preface, p. xiii.

† In 1 Kings iv. 32. Solomon is said to have composed *one thousand and five songs*.

our

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our judgment, to be incompatible with the first. If the Canticles be regarded as a connected or individual poem, it is possible that some latent meaning might have been intended to have been conveyed: but if that which we have hitherto considered as a single poem be only a collection of distinct Idyls, or a variety of small poems composed at different times, and on various occasions, it cannot be easily credited that the whole has a systematically mysterious import.

Mr. Good's idea, if it be not perfectly correct, is however supported with so much ingenuity, has called into exercise so much learning, and has excited so elegant a version of the Hebrew bard, that even while we argue against its admission, we feel a partiality for an error to which perhaps we owe these fruits of the exertions of his Muse. We shall copy his objections to the common notion that the Song of Songs is an individual poem, and the account of the new principle which he has adopted:

'The Song of Songs cannot be one connected epithalamium, since the transitions are too abrupt for the wildest flights of the oriental Muse, and evidently imply a variety of openings and conclusions; while, as a regular drama, it is deficient in almost every requisite that could give it such a classification: it has neither dramatic fable nor action, neither involution nor catastrophe; it is without a beginning, a middle, or an end. To call it such, is to injure it essentially; it is to raise expectations which can never be gratified, and to force parts upon parts which have no possible connexion. Bishop Lowth himself, indeed, while he contends that it is a drama, is compelled to contemplate it as an imperfect poem of this description*.

'It is the object of the present version, therefore, to offer a new arrangement, and to regard the entire song as a collection of distinct idyls upon one common subject—and that the loves of the Hebrew monarch and his fair bride: and it has afforded me peculiar pleasure to observe, from a passage I have accidentally met with in the writings of Sir William Jones, long since the composition of the present work, that some such opinion was entertained by this illustrious scholar†. In forming this arrangement, I have followed no other guide than what has appeared to me the obvious intention of the sacred bard himself: I have confined myself to soliloquy where the speaker gives no evident proofs of a companion, and I have introduced dialogue where the responses are obvious. I have finished the idyl where the subject seems naturally to close, and I have recommenced it where a new subject is introduced. Thus divided into a multitude of little detached poems,

'* *Id itaque satis tuto jam statuere licet, Canticum Salomonis ad minorem illam speciem dramaticæ poëseos pertinere, seu formam solummodo dramaticam habere; neutiquam justi dramatis titulo insigniri posse.*'

De Sacr. Pobs.

'† *Salomonis sanctissimum carmen inter idyllia Hebræa recensendum puto.*'

Sir Wm. Jones.

I trust

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I trust that many of the obscurities which have hitherto overshadowed this unrivalled relique of the eastern pastoral have vanished completely, and that the ancient Hebrews will be found to possess a poet who, independently of the sublimity of any concealed and allegorical meaning, may rival the best productions of Theocritus, Bion, or Virgil, as to the literal beauties with which every verse overflows.'

Whether the Song of Songs be considered as one nuptial poem, or as a fasciculus of love-songs or idyls, the Hebrew bard needs not shrink from a comparison with the best amatory poets of Greece and Rome: but the *nature*, not the *excellence*, of the composition is now the subject of debate. Mr. Good adduces the present practice of the Orientals in support of his hypothesis; informing us that they 'are accustomed to publish their lighter, and particularly their amatory effusions, in distinct sets or diwans,' each diwan consisting of an indefinite number of odes or gazels;—and because Hafiz, the Persian Anacreon, finishes one of his gazels with the remark that he has now "strung his pearls," Mr. G. supposes this comparison of collections of poems to strings of pearls to be of Hebrew origin, and says that the title of Solomon's composition, in its original acceptation, means 'a string of strings, or the most valuable string of poetical pearls.' He observes that שיר, which we translate *song*, signifies a *string* or *chain*, being precisely synonimous with the Greek σειρα: but we demur to this explanation: שיר comes from שר, to *regulate* or *modulate*; hence we have שרים, singing men, or those whose voice is modulated according to a prescribed rule. The first sense of שר is *to regulate*;—in its subsequent application as a noun to signify the *navel string*, or to denote a *chain* or a *string* for pearls or precious stones to form a necklace, the original idea was still retained, the navel-string being supposed to have a regulating power;—and the string or chain was so termed from the regularity of its structure, and from the arrangement which it produced. Besides, if Solomon had intended by the first word of the title of this amatory work, a *string*, in chap. i. 10. we should have found בשירים for בתורים, or for בחרוזים, translated "*rows* of jewels," and "*strings* of pearls." The last of these words comes from a root which literally signifies *filo indere*.

We must object to the reason assigned for disbelieving the Song of Songs to be an individual composition, viz. that 'the transitions are too abrupt for the wildest flights of the Oriental Muse.' Bold transitions are so much the character of Eastern poetry, that this circumstance alone cannot decide against the individuality of the poem. It has been observed by Harmer and others, that it is difficult to assign the several parts of the dia-

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logue to the different speakers, because no descriptions of the persons going to speak are interwoven in the poem, as in Homer, or even in the Book of Job; nor any letter or mark by which the parts belonging to the interlocutors can be discriminated. Various personages are however introduced; its character is unquestionably amatory; and it probably consists of several parts: but neither its abrupt transitions nor its irregularity, nor its failure of answering to Aristotle's definition of the Epic, can form sufficient ground for concluding that it is a fasciculus of Idyls. Had this been the case, the Jews, who must have known the nature of this composition, would have thus arranged it. Moreover, with all its wildness and sudden transitions, the interlocutors remain the same from first to last; and the King and Royal Bride, who begin the poem, are the speakers at the end of it.

Respecting the quality of the fair bride, in whose honour this poem or series of Idyls was composed, we entirely agree with Mr. Good. The arguments employed by Harmer, to evince the probability that this Song was occasioned by Solomon's marriage with Pharaoh's daughter, are certainly inconclusive; his conjectures, therefore, that "probably Solomon might be directed by some intimation of the prophetic spirit, to enter into this alliance," contrary to the injunction of the Levitical Law, and that his making a *Gentile* princess equal in honour and privileges with his former Jewish Queen indicates "the conduct of the Messiah towards the Gentile and Jewish Churches," need not now detain us. If the Egyptian marriage did not occasion this Song, Mr. Harmer's mode of accounting for the alliance, and the doctrine which he would deduce from it, have no reference to the subject in question. On the first view of the matter, it is not easy to believe that so impassioned a composition as the Song of Songs should have resulted from a state alliance. The marriages of kings with princesses are rarely affairs of the heart. Policy, not Love, is the cement on these occasions; Cupid keeps all his arrows idle in his quiver; and the Bridegroom is not inspired to any rapturous effusions. Without having recourse to this general reasoning, we might have appealed to the testimony of the poem itself, which mentions the birth-place and rank of the accomplished beauty, whose charms inspired the Royal poet:

'Instead (as Mr. Good remarks) of being of Egyptian origin, she herself informs us that she was a native of Sharon, which was a canton of Palestine. Though not of royal blood, she was of noble birth; for she is addressed by her attendants under the appellation of princess; and though she could not augment by her dowry the dimensions of the national territory, she possessed for her marriage-portion a noble and

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and fruitful estate in Baal-hammon, ingeniously supposed by Mr. Harmer to have been situated in the delightful valley of Bocat, in the immediate vicinity of Balbec, leased out to a variety of tenants, whose number we are not acquainted with, but every one of whom paid her a clear rental of a thousand shekels of silver, amounting to about 120*l.* 16*s.* 8*d.* sterling. From the possession of this property it is natural to conceive that her father was deceased; more especially as the house in which she resided is repeatedly called the house of her mother, as it was her mother who betrothed her to the enamoured monarch, and as no notice of any kind is taken of the existence of her father.'

It is supposed by Mr. Good that Solomon was in his 24th or 25th year when he was enamoured of this "Rose of Sharon," and, under the impression of a young and ardent passion, composed this poem, or series of distinct and unconnected Idyls; yet, though he allows the inspiring cause of the Song of Songs to be the love of a young man for a beautiful young woman, he inclines to the common belief that it contains a spiritual allusion, in opposition to that of his learned friend Dr. Geddes, who judiciously protested against the idea that it involved any esoteric or allegoric meaning. Finding the allegoric mode of writing to be very prevalent among the Oriental poets, Mr. Good is induced to regard Solomon's song of love as '*sacred* amorets' veiling sublime mysteries; and even independently of such an allusion, as intitled to the honour of constituting a part of the sacred Scriptures, since they afford a happy example of the pleasures of holy and virtuous love.

'I unite (says he) in the opinion of the illustrious Lowth, and believe such a sublime and mystic allegory to have been fully intended by the sacred bard. Regarded in this view, they afford an admirable picture of the Jewish and Christian churches; of Jehovah's selection of Israel as a peculiar people from the less fair and virtuous nations around them; of his fervent and permanent love for his elder church, so frequently compared by the Hebrew prophets to that of a bridegroom for his bride; of the beauty, fidelity, and submission of the church in return; and of the call of the Gentiles into the pale of his favour, upon the introduction of CHRISTIANITY, so exquisitely typified under the character of a younger sister, destitute, in consequence of the greater simplicity of its worship, of those external and captivating attractions which made so prominent a part of the Jewish religion.'

We cannot sufficiently express our surprize at such a sentiment from so very acute a critic. On what shadow of ground is the principle of allegoric interpretation erected, in general; and this application of it to the Jewish and Christian Churches, in particular? Because the Eastern writers indulged in apologues and fables, are we to regard all Oriental compositions as containing veiled meanings? Cannot a Hebrew poet be in love,

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and invoke the muse to paint the charms of his mistress, but we must imagine that "more is meant than meets the eye?" Because Watts and other Christian composers of spiritual songs have very indiscreetly employed the language of carnal passion in describing their love to Christ, are we to infer that Solomon, in the full vigour of youth, when his heart was overflowing with the most impassioned effusions of sensual love, meditated on sublime mysteries, and even wrote under the guidance of the prophetic spirit, which he must have done according to Mr. Good's interpretation? On a recent occasion, we delivered our opinion on this subject *; an opinion which this reconsideration of it has not induced us to alter. No intimation is given that this book is allegoric; and there seems no more reason for interpreting it as containing a picture of the Jewish and Christian churches, than Warburton had for interpreting the 6th Æneid as descriptive of an initiation into the Eleusinian Mysteries †.

As the author has only given his opinion in the preface, without attempting to attach a spiritual commentary to his version, we shall no longer detain the reader by this discussion from the pleasure which he must receive from Mr. Good's execution of the task which he has undertaken. Instead of considering with Mr. Williams and others the Song of Songs as consisting of seven parts, he divides it into 12 distinct Idyls: the first beginning at chap. i. 2., the second i. 9., the third ii. 8., the fourth iii 1., the fifth iii. 6., the sixth iv. 8., the seventh v. 2., the eighth vi. 11., the ninth vii. 1., the tenth vii. 10., the eleventh viii. 5., the twelfth viii. 8.

To the new literal version, Mr. Good has added on the opposite page a beautiful poetic paraphrase. The corrections of the common translation are made, for the most part, with great judgment; and the critical and explanatory notes display a scope of erudition, of which very few even among the learned can boast. Of the alterations, we shall notice a few.

In chap. i. 5. for *curtains*, Mr. Good has substituted 'tapestries:' i. 14. for *cluster of camphire*, 'a cluster of cypress flowers:' ii. 3. for *the apple tree*, 'citron tree:' iii. 7. for *bed*, 'palanquin.'

* Account of Mr. Williams's translation, Rev. for March last, p. 302.

† When Mr. Good, in his notes, transcribes such a variety of passages from the Greek amatory poets, expressing similar sentiments with those of the Song of Songs, did it never occur to him that these were also *allegoric?*

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Considering the connection in which the word מטתו here rendered *bed* stands, a person acquainted with the customs of the East would very naturally refer it to the palanquin; though by the LXX it is rendered κλινη, the common meaning of מטה: but if, in this place, the sense indicates the nature of the bed or couch to be the *sella gestatoria*, surely the word at verse 9, אפריון, which exactly answers to the palanquin, and is translated by the LXX φορειον, should have been rendered by the same term in English; since, though two words are employed by the Hebrew poet, both refer to the same object.

In chap. iv. 1. and vi. 4. שגלשן is correctly rendered by Mr. Good 'as a flock of goats that *brouse* about Mount Gilead.' In the following verse, for *barren* we read 'bereaved;' better answering to the Hebrew word וְשַׁכֻּלָה, *orbatæ*. iv. 3. and vi. 7. '*blossom* of the pomgranate' is substituted for "*piece* of pomgranate:" but we are not convinced of the propriety of the alteration. At iv. 9. instead of the old version, "Thou hast ravished my heart—with one chain of thy neck," we here read 'Thou hast ravished my heart—At once with *the turn* of thy neck;' the critic in the note acknowleging his obligation for this ingenious version to Dr. Percy, Bishop of Dromore; and observing that the Hebrew ענק is equivalent to the Arabic نوق; which is often used in the sense here adopted. Chap. v. 11. 'curling' is properly given as the translation of תלתלים in preference to *bushy*, the term in the Bible version. At vii. 1. the word 'sandals' occupies the place of *shoes*, and at viii. 5. 'I excited thee' *i. e.* to love, is given instead of "*I raised thee up.*" The conclusion of the verse vi. 10. is changed with a happy continuation of the metaphor, from "terrible as an army with banners," to *dazzling* as 'all' the '*starry*' *host*. The obscurity vi. 12. is removed by the adoption of the reading of the LXX, Εκει δωσω τους μαστους μου σοι, and rendered by Mr. Good, 'There would I have granted thee my love;' and at viii. 6. for "the coals thereof (jealousy) are coals of fire, which hath a most vehement flame," we here read, 'its flames are *arrows* of fire, which Jehovah kindleth in the heavens,' dividing שלהבתיה into two words שלהבת יה, "flame of God."

By such specimens, however, we can afford no idea of the merit of the whole. We shall therefore insert an entire Idyl; first giving the literal translation, next Mr. Good's poetic version, and subjoining at the bottom of the page some of the notes.

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'IDYL. IX.

'ROYAL BRIDE, ATTENDANT VIRGINS, KING SOLOMAN (afterwards).

'VIRGINS.

'Ch. VII. 1 How beautiful are thy feet
Within thy *sandals*, O prince's daughter!
The moldings of thy limbs are as 'polished' jewels,
The work of a skilful artist.
2 Thy waist is a well turned goblet,
Replete with the 'luscious' fluid;
3 Thy bosom 'twin'-heaps of wheat,
Covered over with lilies;
Thy two nipples two young roes that are twins;
4 Thy neck is as a tower of ivory;
Thine eyes as the 'clear' fish-streams in Heshbon,
By the gate of Bath-rabbim;
Thy nose as the tower of Lebanon,
Which looketh towards Damascus:
5 Thy rising head is as Carmel,
'Covered' with its tresses in purple 'ribbands.'
The king is held captive in their flowing ringlets.

'KING SOLOMAN (*entering*).

6 How beautiful art thou! how sweet!
How 'framed,' O my love, for delights!
7 Lo! thy stature is like a palm-tree,
And thy bosom clusters 'of dates.'
8 I said 'in my heart,' I will go up to the palm-tree,
I will clasp its branches.
Yea, thy bosom shall now be unto me
As the clusters of the vine,
And the odor of thy breath as fragrant fruits;
9 Thy *speech* also like wine the most delicious,
Captivating to the palate,
Flowing sweetly through the lips and teeth.'

'IDYL IX.

'ROYAL BRIDE, ATTENDANT VIRGINS, KING SOLOMAN (afterwards).

'VIRGINS.

'How fair, O princess! are thy sandalled feet'[1]
White as the lily, as the lily sweet.

Thy

'(1) *How fair, O princess, are thy sandalled feet!*] Magnificent sandals constituted, in the East, a part of the dress of both males and females who could afford such a luxury. I have already noticed it with respect to the former, in Idyl VII. (18) but the oriental ladies were peculiarly attentive to this fashionable ornament. The sandals of Judith were so brilliant that, notwithstanding the general splendor of her bracelets, rings, and necklace, these principally succeeded in captivating

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Thy polished limbs, of what accordant mold!
Lucid as jewels set in purest gold.
The graceful goblet[1] vies not with thy waist,[2]
Turned more harmonious, and with finer taste;

And[3]

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tivating the ferocious Holofernes; for we are expressly told that "her sandals ravished his eyes." Compare Judith x. 4. with xvi. 9. So Lucretius Rer. Nat iv. 1119.

——— pulchra in pedibus Sicyonia rident.
——————— *sandals* rich
Laugh from her feet by Sicyon artists wrought.

[1] It is obvious, from the character under which the royal bride is here addressed, that of *princess* or *prince's daughter*, that she was of noble descent. Many commentators have, indeed, endeavoured to deduce, from this appellation, that she was the daughter of Pharaoh king of Egypt; but I have already noticed a variety of circumstances in the Preface, and shall have occasion to revert to them in several of the ensuing idyls, which evidently contradict such an idea: and, in fact, the very term here translated *prince* (נָדִיב) implies rather mere *nobility* than absolute *royalty* of birth; a "chief," a "ruler," a "noble"; and can only thus be interpreted Psalm xlvii. 9; as it is thus actually translated Isaiah xiii. 2.

[2] It is also obvious that the scene of the present idyl is a private bagnio or bath; probably constructed in some secluded part of the royal pleasure grounds, and unquestionably equalling the magnificence of any which are still traced in modern Asia. To this sequestered building the accomplished fair one retired with her attendants; and it is here she once more receives the royal bridegroom, after having indulged in the luxury of bathing, and re-adorned herself anterior to his admission. The exquisite beauty and proportion of her features excite the eulogy of her attendants as they undress her.'

[3] (·) *The graceful goblet* ———————] The vessel here referred to in the way of comparison was probably of pottery or porcelain, in the manufactory of which the artists of many ancient nations acquired a perfection and elegance of design that is altogether unrivalled in the present day. Those of Mr. Wedgewood's which are introduced into the British Museum are, unquestionably, of exquisite workmanship, and do credit to the nation in which they have been formed; but the model and finish of the Roman antiques by which they are placed are so superior as to excite the preference of the most careless spectator. On the perfection of the ancients in the arts of pottery, painting, and many sister elegancies, the reader may advantageously consult two successive and elaborate treatises on this subject by M. Ameilhon, inserted in Memoirs of the French National Institute, Literat. et Beaux Arts, tom. i. & iii. and entitled Recherches sur les Couleurs des Anciens & sur les Arts qui y ont rapport. The comparison of a graceful and delicate waist to a vessel thus elegantly moulded is curiously pertinent and happy.'

[4] (·) ——— *vies not with thy waist.*] The Hebrew word שֹׁרֶר here translated *waist*, in its more confined and literal signification implies *navel*;

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And filled with fertile juices, to the heart
Dearer than aught the goblet can impart.
Thy swelling bosom teems with nurture sweet,[5]
As, in the fields, twin beds of milky wheat—

Beds

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navel; and the Bible version therefore reads thus: 'Thy *navel* is "like" a round goblet, "which" wanteth not liquor.' But what are we to understand by such a reading? The entire passage has to this hour puzzled the whole host of critics: though I think nothing can be more obvious than its meaning in the original. I allow that the term שֹׁרֶר implies literally the *navel*; but I contend that it is often figuratively used, as in the present version, for the *waist* at large, or the whole of the surrounding region—and this with great pertinence and beauty; the one constituting the fountain of life in the fœtus, the other in the adult, and the former being at all times the most prominent organ of the latter. It is in this sense employed Job xl. 16. in which place it is introduced in direct opposition with the word *loins*, our own figurative term for the same idea. Here, speaking of the behemoth, the Almighty exclaims ראונו בשרירי בטנו

'Behold his strength is in his loins i. e. his back,
And his virility in the *navel* of his belly, i. e. in his *waist*.

'In a similar acceptation the word שֹׁרֶר or *navel* is employed in Prov. iii. 7. and for want of attention to this remark the passage has never been fully understood to the present moment.

'It shall be health (*fertility*) to thy *waist*,
And marrow to thy bones.

'In commenting upon the opening of the present idyl, Patrick, Harmer, and Parkhurst have conceived that the royal poet, instead of delineating the personal charms, 'the *unbought* graces' of his accomplished fair, is merely describing her different habiliments with the splendid figures which were wrought on them. Against such an interpretation I cannot but strongly protest, as equally unpoetical, and unjust to the text. In the literal sense of the original, I see no indelicacy whatever, and there ought to be no indelicacy in its translation. The royal bard is merely assuming a liberty, and that in the chastest manner possible, which we are daily conceding in our own age to every painter and sculptor of eminence.'

'(5) *Thy swelling bosom teems with nurture sweet.*] Here again I am compelled to deviate from the common version and the interpretation of every prior commentator, as offering a sense which I confess I either do not understand, or see obvious reason for rejecting. The Hebrew term בֶּטֶן, here translated *bosom*, might more strictly and literally perhaps be rendered *belly*, and is thus interpreted in our English bibles—'thy *belly* "is like" a heap of wheat.' But even the English term *belly* is divided by anatomists into *upper* and *lower*—the former being appropriated to the chest or præcordia, and the latter to the abdominal region. Now the Hebrew term בֶּטֶן not only admits of this latitude of interpretation—but is occasionally employed, and particularly

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Beds covered o'er with lilies silvery white,
Alike the smell enchanting, and the sight;
While, through each hill of palpitating snow,
Peeps, clad in dun, a young and timid roe.
Thy graceful neck, pre-eminent in power,
Rises majestic as an ivory tower.
Bright are thine eyes, with ampler blaze that beam
Than by Bath-rabbim, Heshbon's limpid stream;
Thy nose outvies, so exquisitely turned,
Th' unrivalled tower o'er Lebanon discerned:
Thy head is Carmel, and its tresses round,
In purple decked, the groves o'er Carmel found:
Loose to the breeze, in shadowy pomp they wave,
Arrest the monarch, and his heart enslave."

' KING

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cularly in the writings of Soloman, in passages in which to translate it otherwise than by the term *bosom* or *heart* would be to subvert the very meaning of the writer himself. What are we to understand by the common rendering of *belly* in Job xv. 35. in which the same word occurs in the original?

' They conceive mischief and bring forth vanity;
And their *belly* prepareth deceit.

' So Prov. xviii. 8.

' The words of the tale-bearer are wounds,
And penetrate the inmost recesses of the *belly*.

' Again, in the same book, chap. xx. 27.

' The spirit of man is the candle of the Lord,
Searching all the inmost recesses of the *belly*.

' Who does not perceive that, in all these instances, the sacred writers intend the *heart*, or rather the *bosom*, and not the *belly* strictly so called, and that the passages should have been thus translated?'

' (") *Arrest the monarch, and his heart enslave.*] ' The king is held captive in their flowing ringlets.' In the original as follows:

מלך אסור ברהטים

which in the Bible version is rendered " the king is held in the galleries;" and by Dr. Percy, " Lo! the king is detained in the antechamber:" while Mr. Green, not knowing what to make of the passage, has unjustifiably omitted it altogether. It is elegantly and poetically rendered by Duport: " The panting monarch clings to the walks or galleries of thy lovely form, as though bound to them with fetters."

' In ambulacris formæ inhians tuæ
Rex, ceu ligatus compede, permanet.

Michaëlis offers another interpretation: " The king is encircled in an upright (or erect) turban:" and Houbigant, uniting the present and prior parts of the verse explains it, cirri capitis tui velut purpura regia,

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' KING SOLOMAN (*entering*).

How sweet, how beauteous art thou, O my love!
Graceful thy form, the stately palm above;
And more delicious, in my heart's repute,
Thy swelling bosom, than its clustering fruit.
Here will I banquet, here my mansion make,
Climb round my palm-tree, and its fruit partake.
More dear to me thy bosom than the sight
Of clustering grapes imbued with purple light:
Thy breath more fragrant than the honied pine;
Thy dulcet voice more exquisite than wine—
Than wine most racy, that no rival knows,
Hailed by the lips, the palate as it flows.'[15]

If

regia, nodo pendens ex laquearibus: "The tresses of thy head are like the royal purple, hanging in festoons from the ceilings."

' There is no doubt, I think, that Houbigant is correct in thus uniting the two members of the verse; but רהטים must suffer much contortion to be forced into the sense of *ceilings*; its more obvious meaning being *outer galleries*, when applied to a building; or *external ornaments surrounding* an object, when employed more generally: in consequence of which Dr. Hodgson has offered the version introduced into the present text; observing justly that רהט the Chaldee radix of רהטים signifies *cucurrit;* and that hence the expression, when applied to the hair, seems to denote its waving and flowing loosely over the shoulders.'

' (15) *Hailed by the lips, the palate as it flows.*] The whole of this passage, including the present and two prior verses, has an obscurity in the original which has much perplexed the commentators. In the Bible version it is given thus: "And the roof of thy mouth like the best wine, for my beloved that goeth down sweetly, causing the lips of those that are asleep to speak." There is no doubt that by the phrase "roof of thy mouth" is meant thy *speech* or *voice*, the cause or organ of articulation being put for the effect, or the articulation itself: and it is in this sense understood by Houbigant, who thus proposes to amend the entire passage: וחכך כיין הטוב הולך לחכי למישרים רובב שפתי ושנים. Et palatum (sc. eloquium) tuum, quasi vinum dulce, in palatum meum intrans suaviter, adrepens leniter intra labia et dentes. The alteration, however, of לדודי (for 'my *beloved*') into לחכי ('through my palate') is not only unjustifiably bold, but altogether unnecessary; since, as it is well observed by Dr. Percy, we may with Junius and Tremellius consider לדודי as in the plural number, *ad amores* (*deliciously*); the final ם being cut off by apocope, *euphoniæ gratia;* in which adverbial sense the ensuing word is also to be understood למישרים *iens amantissime rectissimeque*. The term ישנים *dormientium* ("of those that are asleep") is written in the Septuagint, Syriac, and Vulgate, as well as by Aquila and Symmachus, ושנים *et dentes* ("and the teeth"); and I have followed these authorities, as offering a sense more obvious than the former. The common reading, however, is neither destitute of meaning nor of

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If Mr. Good's muse be more chaste than that of Dr. Croxal in his Fair Circassian, she is sufficiently warm and empassioned; and we are at a loss to conceive how a writer, after having fired his imagination with the glowing descriptions of personal attractions exhibited in this passage, and throughout the whole poem, should imagine that it was intended to inculcate 'the tenderness which the husband should manifest for his wife; and the deference, modesty, and fidelity with which his affections should be returned.' Ideas of pleasure rather than of duty are displayed in this poem; and the thoughts of the writer are occupied, not with the instruction, but with the enjoyment of his radiant bride.

ART. XI. *A Poem on the Restoration of Learning in the East,* which obtained Mr. Buchanan's Prize. By Charles Grant, Esq, M A. Fellow of Magdalen College. 4to. 3s. 6d. Cadell and Davies. 1805.

UNLESS the judges, appointed by the University of Cambridge to award Mr. Buchanan's Prize, were incompetent to their office, which can scarcely be supposed, Mr. Grant could have no fears in presenting himself at our tribunal; and if we bestowed commendation on Mr. Wrangham's unsuccessful attempt, (see M. R. for May last, p. 89.) the victorious poem before us might be supposed to offer higher claims to our praise. We perused Mr. Grant's verses under this impression; and, in opposition to the usual result, our expectations

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force; and implies wine of so excellent a flavor as to induce those who have indulged in it to dream of it, and converse concerning it while dreaming; or else to excite them to drink of it to excess, in consequence of which they fall asleep from inebriation, and disclose the subject of their dreams in audible speech. This last version, which is adopted by the translators of our English Bible, is also adhered to by Dr. Hodgson and Melesigenio; the latter of whom interprets the passage, with rather too much poetical paraphrase, as follows:

'E umor, qual vino egregio,
Mandi tua bocca fuora
A farsi incontro a' bacci miei soave,
Che fra le labbra ancora
Di chi di sonna è carco
Dolcemente serpendo apresi il varco.

'It is given in like manner by Duport:

——— placide fluens
Permulcet os, et dormientum
Prolicit e labiis loquelam.'

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have not operated to his prejudice and our disappointment. Prominent as was the merit of Mr. W.'s parallel-composition, that which is the offspring of Mr. Grant's muse is its superior; since it displays a more intimate acquaintance with the state and history of the East, more minutely enlarges on the circumstances to which the poem immediately refers, and in all its references and allusions is more pointed and appropriate; while at the same time it is scarcely inferior in harmony and strength of expression, though occasionally we meet with tame couplets, and with rhimes which it would require some critical charity to tolerate. Before Mr. Grant invoked the Muse, he imbued his mind with a copious knowlege of his subject, recollecting the Horatian maxim,

Scribendi rectè sapere est principium et fons.

As the topics introduced, with the particular train of thought, cannot be more clearly or more briefly expressed than in the author's argument, we shall transcribe it, as an acceptable analysis of the poem:

'I. The *first* Part of the Poem describes the degraded state of Hindoo Literature during the latter part of the last century. The shocks which Learning sustained from the persecuting Bigotry of Aurungzebe, the Irruption of Nadir Shah, and the intestine divisions to which that irruption gave rise, are particularly noticed. II. A transition is then made to the ancient Splendor of Hindoo Literature during the period when India was governed by her native Kings. The earliest age of authentic Indian History is brought into review; some account is given of the Poetry and Philosophy of Vyasa, which distinguished succeeding times; and this Part closes with a reference to the last brilliant æra of India, when the Poet Calidasa flourished. III. *Lastly*, The Revival of Learning on the Banks of the Ganges, under the auspices of the English, and particularly of the Asiatic Society, is celebrated. The Poem concludes with anticipating the diffusion of the Arts, the Sciences, and the Religion of Great Britain, throughout the East.'

Over the blood-stained and soul-depressing picture of the first mentioned period, we wish to draw a veil; for whether in prose or in poetry, it is horrible to reflect on the miseries which are inflicted on nations by the conqueror's sword, and to perceive how severely every science and every art are blasted by bigotted intolerance. Let us contemplate the state of India previously to the times of Aurungzebe and Nadir Shah:

'Ill fated India! yet thy plains have known
The sage's voice, and harp's enraptur'd tone;
Oft have thy proud pagodas heard the sound
Of hallow'd minstrelsy, wide warbling round;
And Learning's footsteps printed every vale,
Where Jumna's waves their long-lost joys bewail.

Even

E'en when thy towers confess'd the tyrant's pride,
Thy native arts the Moslem spear defied;
Oft, as it gleam'd around, from age to age
The smile of Learning sooth'd the battle's rage;
Oft, while the sceptre graced some milder name,
Thy gladden'd Genius sprung to ancient fame.
Though fain the song thy varying fates would trace,
And tell the triumphs of thy subject race,
What arts reviving mark'd each glorious reign,
What poets waked the tributary strain;
What thoughts divine, and Fancy's glancing ray,
Consol'd the rigours of a foreign sway:
More pleased, the Muse to earlier years ascends,
And o'er the steps of kings and sages bends,
Thy native kings and sages all thy own,
Wise in the grove, or mighty on the throne.
Where Time remote his shadowy troop displays,
She hears the voices of departed days.
Age blest with all that life or decks or cheers,
Refines, instructs, enobles, soothes, endears.
Then rose the triple Ramas, names ador'd,
To wield alike the sceptre and the sword.
Then thought Gautami, India's peerless boast,
Bright leader of the philosophic host:
Though ages interpos'd their dark'ning flight,
His distant beams illum'd the Stagirite.
Then Science smiled on man, and for his use
Arts intricate unveil'd, and lore abstruse;
Learning with all her stores enrich'd his mind;
Mild laws his will corrected, not confin'd;
Astronomy her high career *begun*,
And bade him rise from earth, to watch the sun:
To purify with pity and with dread,
Sage Tragedy her moral lesson spread;
And History round her curious glances cast,
And to the future reason'd from the past;
While Valmic's epic song, with heavenly art
Inspir'd, dilated all the gen'rous heart.'

Among the old writers of Sanscreet verse, distinguished notice is taken of

'————Vyasa, the saint and sage,
Th' immortal Berkeley of that elder age,'

the tenet of whose philosophy coincided with that of Bishop Berkeley; viz. "that matter exists only as it is perceived." After a beautiful illustration of this anti-material hypothesis, and of the resolution of all existence into that of the Self-Existent Eternal Mind, Mr. Grant hazards a conjecture respecting the probable origin of what is commonly called the Immaterial Philosophy, from the principles of Polytheism;

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ism; and as it is explanatory of Hindoo theology, we give it a place, though the passage is deformed by weak lines, marked in italics:

'Perhaps, by smooth gradations, to this end
All systems of belief unconscious tend,
That teach the infinite of nature swarms
With Gods subordinate, through endless forms,
And every object, useful, bright, malign,
Of some peculiar is the care or shrine.
Ask the poor Hindoo if material things
Exist: he answers, Their existence springs
From mind within, that prompts, protects, provides,
And moulds their beauties, or their terrors guides.
Blooms the red flow'ret? Durva blushes there.
Flash lightnings fierce? dread Indra fills the air.
The morning wakes, or high the white wave swells,
That Surya brightens, Ganga this impels.
Thus, in each part of this material scene,
He owns that matter leans on Mind unseen;
And in each object views some God pourtray'd,
This all in all, and that but empty shade;
The mind extinct, its shadows too must flee,
And all the visible forget to be.
But when the Sage is taught these Gods to deem
The powers personified of One Supreme,
He not destroys their functions, but transfers;
Their titles changes, not their characters;
Content, for many one Great Cause t' adore,
He now terms attributes what Gods before:
Yet still untouch'd that principle retains,
Mind, ever present, in all matter reigns;
His creed the same, whate'er that mind he call,
In each imprison'd, or diffus'd through all.'

When Mr. Grant arrives at what may be termed the proposed subject of his poem, the revival of Learning in consequence of the dominion of the English established in the East, he enumerates those men who have been the promoters and ornaments of Oriental literature: but in this list we are surprized that the name of *Hastings* does not appear;—a man to whose policy we are not only indebted in a great measure for our Eastern empire, but who by his patronage of Mr. Wilkins, and by the ingenious yet modest letter prefixed to that gentleman's translation of the Bhagvat Geeta, has shewn that, while Governor-General, the advancement of science was not less dear to him than those civil and commercial interests over which he immediately presided. We have not the slightest personal acquaintance with Mr. Hastings, and have been led to this remark by no feeling of private friendship, but by the imperious call of public justice:

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justice: for if the name of *Wellesley* occurs, as it doubtless must, among those who have been propitious to the advancement of Learning in the East, ought that of *Hastings* to be omitted, under whose auspices the measures adapted to this end were so judiciously pre-concerted?

It is pleasing to reflect on the fact itself, that Eastern science is an object of sedulous study by our countrymen; that we transport, with the treasures, the learning of India; and that the selfish schemes of conquest and aggrandizement are combined with plans for the improvement and happiness of the country. How far we may be ultimately beneficial, time must discover: but at present, Asia cannot boast much of the blessings conferred on her by Europeans.

Mr. Wrangham having exerted his skill in delineating that great luminary of Eastern Learning, Sir Wm. Jones, and Mr. Grant having employed himself in the same grateful task, we shall transcribe this part of the present poem, that our readers may compare the two portraits:

'Accomplish'd JONES! whose hand to every art
Could unknown charms and nameless grace impart.
His was the soul, by fear nor interest *sway'd*,
The purest passions and the wisest *head*;
The heart so tender, and the wit so true,
Yet this no malice, that no weakness knew;
The song, to Virtue as the Muses dear,
Though glowing chaste, and lovely though severe.
What gorgeous trophies crown his youthful bloom,
The spoils august of Athens, and of Rome.
And, lo! untouch'd by British brows before,
Yet nobler trophies wait on Asia's shore;
There, at his magic voice, what wonders rise!
Th' astonish'd East unfolds her mysteries:
Round her dark shrines a sudden blaze he showers,
And all unveil'd the proud Pantheon towers.
Where, half unheard, Time's formless billows glide,
Alone he stems the dim discover'd tide;
Wide o'er th' expanse as darts his radiant sight,
At once the vanish'd ages roll in light.
Old India's Genius, bursting from repose,
Bids all his tombs their mighty dead disclose;
Immortal names! though long immers'd in shade,
Long lost to song, though destin'd not to fade.
O'er all the master of the spell presides,
Their march arranges, and their order guides;
Bids here or there their ranks or gleam or blaze
With hues of elder or of later days.
See, where in British robes sage Menu shines,
And willing Science opes her Sancreet mines!

His

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His are the triumphs of her ancient lyres,
Her tragic sorrows, and her epic fires;
Her earliest arts, and learning's sacred store,
And strains sublime of philosophic lore:
Bright in his view their gather'd pomp appears,
The treasur'd wisdom of a thousand years.
Oh, could my verse, in characters of day,
The living colours of thy mind pourtray,
And on the sceptic, midst his impious dreams,
Flash all the brightness of their mingled beams!
Then should he know how talents various, bright,
With pure Devotion's holy thoughts unite;
And blush (if yet a blush survive) to see
What genius, honour, virtue, ought to be.
Philosopher, yet to no system tied;
Patriot, yet friend to all the world beside;
Ardent with temper, and with judgment bold;
Firm, though not stern, and though correct, not cold;
Profound to reason, or to charm us gay;
Learn'd without pride, and not too wise to pray.'

Some charming sentiments are introduced towards the close of the poem; and we were particularly pleased with those lines which are addressed to Britain as the arbitress of Asia, which charge us not to 'bare the conquering sword till Justice asks the war,' and which enforce a truth disregarded by Avarice and Ambition, that

'Justice alone can consecrate renown.'

The passage in p. 24, beginning with 'How dark,' and ending with 'history below,' reminds us of something which we have read in a country church-yard. The paragraph is common-place, and might without loss be omitted.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For JULY, 1805.

HISTORY.

Art. 12. *A Compendious History of the World*, from the Creation to the Dissolution of the Roman Republic. By John Newberry. With a Continuation to the Peace of Amiens, 1802. 2 Vols. 16mo. 5s. Boards. Darton and Harvey. 1804.

We have no fault to find with these little volumes, except that they want adaptation to that tender age for which their size intimates that they were designed. If this narrative were more level with the capacities of the young, and such as would engage their attention, it would rarely mislead them.

Art.

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Art. 13. *Elements of General History:* Translated from the French of the Abbe Millot. Part I. Antient History. Part II. Modern History. A new Edition. 5 Vols. 12mo. 1l. 1s. Boards. Printed at Edinburgh; London, Longman and Co.

We are glad to see these valuable works published in a cheaper and more convenient form than they have hitherto borne; their merits are too well known to call for a repetition of the commendation which we have on former occasions bestowed on them *. If we except the valuable epitome of Mr. Tytler †, we know not any performances that are intitled to supersede them, as the first guides in the vast walk of history.

Art. 14. *Essays on History*, particularly the Jewish, Assyrian, Persian, and Roman; with Examinations for the Use of Young Persons. By John Holland. 12mo. pp. 408. 5s. Boards. Printed for the Author at Manchester; sold in London by Longman and Co.

The ingredients of the entertainment here provided are on the whole excellent, but they might have been better served up. We could have wished that each section had been headed by a summary of its contents, that dates had not been so uniformly omitted, that the style had been more familiar, and the narrative more simple. The work is better calculated for mature than for young persons: but if it therefore does not so well attain its professed object, it is a performance of general utility, and is highly creditable to the diligence, information, and judgment of Mr. Holland.

ANTIQUITIES.

Art. 15. *Antiquities of the Inns of Court and Chancery:* containing historical and descriptive Sketches relative to their original Foundation, Customs, Ceremonies, Buildings, Government, &c. &c. With a concise History of the English Law. By W. Herbert. Embellished with twenty-four Plates. 8vo. pp. 377. 1l. 5s. Boards. Vernor and Co. 1804.

Young men may derive some curious and valuable information from this collection of extracts: but it is to be wished that it had been more methodic and better digested. The most interesting part is the account of the instructions delivered by the superiours, and of the exercises kept by the students in the Inns of Court, which have since become obsolete. The plates have much merit.

BIOGRAPHY.

Art. 16. *A Biographical Dictionary of the celebrated Women of every Age and Country.* By Matilda Betham. 12mo. pp. 774. 7s. Boards. Crosby and Co.

The fair compiler of this volume submits it to the judgment of the public with great diffidence, and intimates her conviction that it must

* See M. R. Vol. xlviii. p. 589. Vol. l. p. 535. Vol. lx. p. 119. &c.

† See Review for March last.

have

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have much occasion for their indulgence. By the aid of "*Le Dictionnaire des Femmes célèbres*," and the communications of several friends, Miss B. has furnished a volume which, we doubt not, will be received with candour, and a due degree of approbation. From its size, it cannot be expected that each article should be extended to any great length; but, as the authorities from which they are taken are usually quoted at the conclusion of each, the reader will be enabled to consult at his leisure more ample sources of information. As a compendium, arranged in alphabetical order, it will be found useful for occasional consultation.

MEDICAL.

Art. 17. *The Soldier's Friend:* containing familiar Instructions to the Loyal Volunteers, Yeomanry Corps, and Military Men in general, on the Preservation and recovery of their Health: with a prefatory Address to Commanding Officers. By Wm. Blair, A. M. Surgeon of the Lock Hospital and Asylum, and of the Bloomsbury Dispensary, &c. A new Edition, considerably enlarged, and illustrated by eight Engravings. 12mo. pp. 311. 5s. Boards. Murray, &c.

The instructions contained in this book would have come forwards with much greater force, had they been the result of actual experience in the military department of the army. Every attempt, however, to render the services of our countrymen more effectual, and to prepare them for that change of habits which the political situation of the kingdom may at one time or another render necessary, is worthy of attention, and deserves praise.—We had occasion to notice the 1st edition of this work soon after its appearance *; and we shall only add to the observations which we then made on it, that the present edition is much amplified.

The author, in an appendix, arraigns with undue and unbecoming severity some remarks made by Mr. Travers, Surgeon to the Duke of Kent, on the readiest mode of stopping a Hæmorrhage. It does not appear to us, from an inspection of the part of Mr. Travers's pamphlet in question, that he recommends the application of the concave piece of brass, belonging to Savigny's patent Screw Tourniquet, immediately over the artery, in any other way than as the most ready mode of stopping the hæmorrhage, till medical assistance can be procured; and though this method is certainly not that which a professional man would himself practise, yet it would be difficult to prove its inefficacy to the object in view, and therefore the applicability of those terms of severe and unqualified reprehension which Mr. Blair has bestowed on it.

Art. 18. *Report of the Progress of Vaccine Inoculation in Bengal*, from the Period of its Introduction in Nov. 1802, to the End of the Year 1803; with an Appendix, submitted to the Medical Board at Fort William. By John Shoolbred, Superintendant General of Vaccine Inoculation. 8vo. pp. 93. 2s. Blacks and Parry.

* See Rev. Vol. xxvi. N. S. p. 339.

Early

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Early in the year 1801, Governor Duncan, of Bombay, wrote to Lord Elgin, the English Minister at Constantinople, requesting him to forward a supply of vaccine matter by the way of Bagdad and Bussora; where the matter might be renewed on fresh subjects, and thus have a chance of reaching Bombay in a state capable of communicating the infection. The first supplies failed: but in June 1802, a successful inoculation was effected at Bombay; and from this first inoculation the matter originally emanated, which has ever since been used in India. The matter sent from Constantinople was renewed by inoculation at Bagdad, and was then conveyed to Bussora, at the distance of from 30 to 35 days' journey; where it was again renewed, before it was transmitted to its final destination at Bombay.

It appears from the statement given by Mr. Shoolbred, that 12,166 persons were inoculated, from the period of the introduction of the cow-pox into India in June 80, to the end of the year 1803; and that every effort is made, both by the heads of the Government and medical men, to diffuse this practice over every part of our settlements in the East.

Variolous inoculation was regularly practised by the Brahmins in Calcutta, in the beginning of every year previous to 1803.

'They inoculated all who could pay them, regardless how near their patients were to those who either could not from indigence, or would not from principle, be inoculated; by this means spreading on every side a fatal pestilence, which annually pursued its course of misery and death.'

This practice, however, was at length interdicted by the Police; and two seasons have passed over, without bringing with them 'this dreadful scourge of humanity.' The mortality produced by natural small-pox in India is stated to be as one to three; and by the inoculated, as one to 60 or 70, of children born of European parents. The Bramins acknowledge that they lose one in 200 of those whom they inoculate; which the author considers as below the truth: but whatever estimate may be taken, it is evident that the introduction of vaccine inoculation will be the means of saving a great number of lives.

In a long appendix, the author gives various details relating to vaccination in general, and the practice in India in particular. He agrees with Dr. Pearson in thinking that the cow-pox can only be received once; that there is no such thing as a spurious pustule; and that the only disadvantage attending the use of matter taken at a late period is that it may occasionally fail.

Mr. Shoolbred took considerable pains to inquire whether there were any traces of cow pox among the cattle in India; or whether, if there were, its prophylactic powers were applied or understood: but, though many were disposed to assert that the disease was known to the Bramins from time immemorial, yet this claim was never advanced till vaccine inoculation had triumphed over all opposition to it. Something more, indeed, than mere assertions was employed to establish this point; for the surgeon of a Native regiment, stationed at Bareilly, got possession of a Sanscrit manuscript, which contained the following paragraph on the subject:

"Taking

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"Taking the matter (pùya) of pimples (granthi) which are naturally produced on the udders of cows, carefully preserve it; and, before the breaking out of the small pox (sitala), making with a small instrument a small puncture, (like that made by a gnat,) in a child's limb, introduce into the blood as much of that matter as is measured by the fourth part of a *ractí*; thus the wise physician renders the child secure from the breaking out of the small-pox."

This passage was suspected to be an interpolation; and the conjecture was proved to be well founded, by collating the manuscript from which it was taken, with others.

It was hoped that the Hindoos, from the veneration which they bear to the cow, would practise vaccine inoculation with ardour: but the circumstance of the prophylactic being connected with that animal seems to have operated rather as an objection, than as a recommendation to its adoption.

Art. 19. *Dissertatio Medica Inauguralis, de Ophthalmia Ægypti*, &c. *i. e.* A Medical Inaugural Dissertation on Egyptian Ophthalmia. By Henry Dewar. 8vo. pp. 40. 2s. 6d. Murray.

It is not often that inaugural dissertations are considered to be proper objects of general publication; and indeed we are inclined to think that, under that form, original observations are little likely to attract attention: because it is well known that such essays are written in obedience to university statutes, and do not require the possession of any claims to originality. Dr. Dewar, however, having been employed in the English Army in Egypt, had an opportunity of seeing numerous examples of the disease which he now describes. He gives a perspicuous account of the history of Ophthalmia, and informs us that the Bedouin Arabs, though not so much affected with the disease as their neighbours in Egypt, were by no means free from it. He thinks that there is little ground for dividing Ophthalmia into the Sthenic and Asthenic form, the mild and severe, or the acute and chronic; and he is disposed to consider the different characters under which it appears, as varieties, depending on concurring circumstances. He enumerates the causes which have been regarded by different authors as capable of producing Ophthalmia; and though he does not lay so much stress on the effects of exhalations as many others have done, yet he conjectures 'that something may be attributable to the particular form of vegetable exhalations in Egypt, as having a tendency to produce that peculiar debility which ends in inflammation of the eyes.' He conceives that it is the union of various causes, and not the operation of any one in particular, which produces the disease. He has no doubt that the complaint is capable of being propagated by contagion; and he adduces the following interesting quotation from a Thesis published by Dr. James Armstrong in 1789, to prove the introduction of Ophthalmia into a ship in that way:

"In the month of January 1782, his Majesty's ship Albemarle, coasting by Hispaniola, met with a slave ship, from which three sailors were impressed. One of the three laboured under a slight inflammation of the eyes; and on being questioned concerning the

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cause of it, he answered that he had just recovered from a very painful disease, with which almost every one in the slave ship had been affected, except the master. On the 4th day after these men had been brought into the King's ship, two of the sailors complained that they had been seized on the preceding night with an acute pain in the fore part of the head, and at the same time with a troublesome sensation in the eyes, as if dust had been thrown into them. The next morning, many more said that they had been seized in a similar way in the course of the night; and on the morning of the 7th day from that on which the first two were affected, twenty-two were rendered unfit for duty. Some were confined to bed by the severity of the pain in the head, which they were unable to raise from the pillow; and in them the inflammation was so considerable, as to make the colour of the eyes resemble raw flesh. The disease becoming every day worse, the captain thought it necessary to cut off all communication between the sick and the healthy, in order prevent it from spreading further. After that measure had been adopted, the contagion affected only twenty-five more; and in about five weeks from the time of its being brought into the ship, it entirely disappeared."

The means here recommended for the cure of Ophthalmia are such as are usually employed. A stimulant ointment, composed of two drachms of red precipitate, with an ounce and half of Goulard, and four ounces of fresh butter, applied to the tarsi, with a camel-hair pencil, twice in a day, Dr. Dewar has found to be extremely serviceable in six cases of the most acute form of the disease; being the whole number in which he employed this application.

AFFAIRS OF IRELAND.

Art. 20. *Thoughts on the Civil Condition and Relations of the Roman Catholic Clergy, Religion, and People in Ireland.* By Theobald Mac Kenna, Esq. Barrister at Law. 8vo. pp. 193. 4s. 6d. Sewed. Budd. 1805.

Though a serious Catholic, this author displays the views of an enlightened and liberal statesman. Complaints, he observes, are sometimes made of the preponderant weight of the clergy in the catholic body, while the very persons urging them are those who increase the evil, by their resolute resistance of every attempt to increase the consequence of the lay members of that communion. If, he says, you would counterbalance the clerical influence, let offices and situations of consideration in civil life be accessible to the laity. If the undue influence of the reverend pastors is to be checked and prevented, it is not less impolitic than unjust to deprive them of what properly belongs to their functions; since this cannot be done without lessening the authority of their instructions, and the efficacy of their example. He declares himself to be by no means hostile to the protestant establishment; and he fully admits the injustice and impolicy of offering it any violence: but he protests against proscribing that system which administers to the wants of the bulk of the population, though consisting very much of the middling and lower classes of the community. The piety, morality, and all the valuable social qualities of this vast body, are nurtured and sustained by the catholic religion. This is the instrument by which

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which alone they can be made useful and deserving. Vilify, discredit, and discountenance this, he says, and your subjects become devoid of religion or moral worth. He maintains that a wise and parental government is required to cherish and protect the doctrine and discipline from which such beneficial effects result; and he claims for this faith a kind of establishment, altogether distinct from and in no way entrenching on that which already enjoys this security. His demands for this purpose are surely too humble to awaken jealousy in the most suspicious, and too moderate to call forth discontent in the most penurious. He would have Government pay the Bishops and Dignitaries, and for this purpose he requires only 12,000l. per ann. His scheme for the encouragement of the inferior clergy would extend very considerable aid to that valuable order, while it would form scarcely any burden on the public. The whole of the author's remarks on the interest of Government in recognizing and protecting the catholic communion, and in countenancing and rewarding its ministers, must be deemed clear and convincing, and extremely deserving of attention. If these matters are to undergo any settlement, (which it is to be hoped they will, and without loss of time,) we think that the author of this tract would be a person highly proper to be consulted on so desirable an arrangement. In no work that has fallen into our hands, is the grave subject under consideration so fully and ably treated as in that now before us. In no other, will the reader find the importance of the petitioning body, the light in which it ought to be regarded, and the benefits likely to result from magnanimous and just measures with respect to it, so clearly and satisfactorily exhibited.

In the concluding part of the pamphlet, the writer animadverts very freely on men and measures: but there are many of his allusions which we are not able to trace. Some of his reprehensions and injunctions are far from being judicious, or from harmonizing with the preceding part of the work. His exhortations to his brethren, in the case of a repeated denial to their suit, though they were hardly to be expected from a catholic, are doubtless highly becoming, as well as sanctioned by dispassionate reflection.

As friends to the empire, and as well-wishers to the catholic claims, we make our warm acknowlegements to the author, for the laudable pains and industry exerted by him in elucidating a subject, respecting which we deem it of very high importance to enlighten the public, in order to facilitate the success of an application, the renewed and frequent rejection of which we cannot contemplate without alarm.

Art. 21. *Reflections on the Policy and Justice of an immediate and general Emancipation of the Catholics of Great Britain and Ireland.* By the late Lord Petre. To which are added some Strictures on the same Subject, by the Editor, (first published in the Year 1782). 8vo. 3s. 6d. Booker.

We are very sorry that this sensible and gentlemanly pamphlet, from the pen of the late Lord Petre, escaped our notice at the time when the subject to which it refers occupied general attention. With

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brevity, yet with perspicuity, his Lordship discusses the merits of the case; accurately weighing the political effects which might be apprehended from a general emancipation of the catholics of the empire. To the objections which were urged as arising from the coronation oath, he replies with much ability; clearly proving that this oath can only be regarded as referring to the King in his *executive*, not in his *legislative* capacity. Lord Petre's manly reply to those who charge the catholics with believing in the power of the pope, or priest, to dispense with the obligation of an oath, cannot fail of exciting a smile, but it will be a smile of approbation:

'I have no courage to do such a thing, [viz. take the oath prescribed on a peer's assuming his seat]; and if there was a priest or prelate of any description wicked or impious enough to propose it to me, the first impulse I should feel would be to *knock him down.*'

Though Lord Petre disclaims 'all sort of acrimony,' the enmity of a certain individual towards the catholics provokes recrimination; and the mitre is represented as converting 'the philosophical atheist of the college into the zealous apostle of the pulpit.'

The strictures added by the Editor consist of an answer to Lord Geo. Gordon's letters to the Earl of Shelburne, which we noticed at the time of their appearance. See Rev. Vol. lxviii. p. 533.

Art. 22. *Reply to Melancthon's Letter to Dr. Troy*, titular Archbishop of Dublin. By the Rev. Lewis Roberts. 8vo. 2s. Booker.

According to Mr. Roberts, the Letter of Melancthon is not so mild, moderate, and candid as that signature imports. We find him here charged with dealing in misrepresentation, sarcasm, and illiberal insinuation; and the ground of his address to Dr. Troy is represented as idle and nugatory. However, after all the dextrous thrusts and parries of Mr. R., we cannot allow him to be superior to his protestant antagonist. Is the absolute subjection of the pope to Bonaparte no matter for deliberation, at the present time, when the affairs of the catholics of Ireland, who own him as their spiritual head, are under consideration? It is artful in a catholic to treat this subject with playfulness and ridicule: but might not the farce at Paris be the prelude to a serious tragedy in Ireland, if the pope were to afford his spiritual sanction (and sanction it he must if he should receive the order) to the invasion of Ireland? Mr. R. tells us that 'no law or regulation of the pope can have any vigour or effect, except in those countries in which it is legally and publicly announced, and in which it is legally and publicly accepted:' but this explanation of the pope's *Supremacy* does not meet all the supposed difficulties of the case. Though this gentleman thanks Melancthon for his scheme of a *Concordat* for Ireland, he plainly informs him that it cannot be settled without the concurrence of the pope, who must be a party to his own exclusion: indeed, his exclusion we find to be impossible on the principle of Catholicism, for Mr. R. represents it to be the universal principle of his church, in all its ramifications, to acknowlege the spiritual supremacy of the Roman Pontiff.

We enter not into lesser points, on which Mr. R. attacks Melancthon.

Art

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Art. 23. *Hints to the Manufacturers of Great Britain, on the Consequences of the Irish Union*; and the System since pursued of borrowing in England for the Service of Ireland. By the Earl of Lauderdale. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Longman and Co.

Watching with a careful eye over the prosperity of our manufactures, (a material feature in our national resources,) this nobleman looks with fearful apprehension to the system adopted respecting Ireland since the Union; and he anticipates considerable inconveniences from the large remittances, which must annually be made from this part of the empire to Great Britain. If we take the sum annually paid by Ireland to Absentees at 2,890,000l. and 1,500,000l. to be the interest of debt due to England, the necessary yearly remittance will be 4,390,000l. Now supposing that the balance of trade in favour of Ireland will provide for 1,400,000l. of this sum, there will remain nearly three millions, the remittance of which will require some new arrangement. As this sum cannot be annually paid in bullion, Lord L. very naturally supposes that commodities must be sent to Great Britain to be exchanged for money; and that the unfavourable exchange, which this measure must create, will operate as a bounty on the exportation of Irish goods, by which our home manufactures will be considerably affected We shall not at present enter into this speculation; which, if controverted, Lord L. promises farther to illustrate: we trust, however, that it will not be overlooked by our Ministers, since it is here maintained that the freedom of trade has been imperceptibly but effectually cramped and impaired by the financial arrangements between England and Ireland.

Art. 24. *Thoughts on the alarming State of the Circulation, and on the Means of redressing the pecuniary Grievances of Ireland.* By the Earl of Lauderdale. 8vo. 3s. 6d. Longman and Co.

After having maturely investigated all the circumstances of the case, Lord Lauderdale establishes these propositions: 1st, That the difference existing between the value of gold and the paper of the Bank of England arises from the depreciation of its paper. 2. That the increase of Bank paper is the sole cause of its depreciation. 3. That the reduction of the quantity of Bank paper is the only remedy for the existing evil.

It is manifest that, when banks are forced to cash their notes on demand, prudence will oblige them to confine their issue of notes according to their ability to discharge them: but, when they are restricted, for whatever reason, from cash payments, this check on their conduct is removed, and the emission of paper becomes excessive. Thus it was with the Banks of England and Ireland. The latter, before the restriction bill, usually had a paper circulation of about 600,000l.: but, after the issue of specie was prohibited, its notes amounted to 3,000,000l., or to five times the former quantity; to which circumstance his lordship attributes the alarming state of the currency of that country.

When Lord L. proceeds to discuss the means of effecting a reduction of the Bank paper of Ireland, and of preventing its future re-emission, he recommends one or all of these measures: 1. Calling in the debts due to Government. 2. Borrowing money on loan. 3. In-

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creasing

creasing the capital of the Bank. It is the opinion of this politician that, if the present excessive issue of paper were restricted, and the Bank confined to a certain quantity, coin would again come into use; of which, he is persuaded, the quantity in Ireland has rather increased than diminished since the restriction.

When, at the conclusion of his pamphlet, Lord L. glances at the Bank of England, he does not attribute any blame to its Directors; though he is convinced that they have extended their paper beyond the bounds of discretion, and that they, as well as the Irish Directors, should think of a diminution of the quantity of their notes.

Art. 25. *A Word of Advice to the trading and monied Interests of Ireland*, upon the momentous Subject of the alarming Scarcity of the smaller Denominations of Silver Coin. With some Suggestions upon the most feasible Mode of regulating the Application for a New Coinage, so as permanently to secure the People of Ireland from a Repetition of this Calamity. 8vo. pp. 25. Dublin printed. 1804.

To remedy the evils arising from the scarcity of small silver coin and copper in Ireland, and from the issue of silver-notes, this author (who, we are told, is an advocate at the Irish bar) recommends '*an immediate coinage and issue of small silver and halfpence, made especially for this country, and not current in England, so alloyed as to be more absolutely below the possible average price of bullion or copper than the present denomination of English shilling and halfpenny are, or shall in future be, and so much enhanced in intrinsic value by exquisite workmanship as to counterbalance the deficiency of intrinsic value by the security it will afford against the attempts of counterfeiters.*'

Such a coinage, it is contended, would meet every possible grievance: but, whatever may be the sanguine expectations of the writer, we apprehend that, as long as the rate of exchange is against Ireland, her coin, though adulterated below the sterling standard, must be drained from her; unless manufactures, in lieu of specie, be transmitted to liquidate the balance against her. As Ireland is admitted to be in a very singular predicament, with no prospect for some time of a favourable rate of exchange, (both the balance of trade and that of remittances being against her,) we must own that we consider the measure here recommended as a temporizing expedient; though we would not withhold the praise of good intention from this patriotic projector.

The author feelingly portrays the melancholy effects of the Absentee system; and of that inattention to the comfort and morals of the lower classes of the Irish, which has for a long time prevailed.

MILITARY AFFAIRS.

Art. 26. *The Experienced Officer*; or Instructions by the General of Division, Wimpffen, to his Sons, and to all young Men intended for the Military Profession: being a Series of Rules laid down by General Wimpffen, to enable Officers of every Rank to carry on War, in all its Branches and Descriptions, from the least important Enterprizes and Expeditions, to the decisive Battles which involve

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volve the Fate of Empires. The corrected and revised Edition of the latest Date, illustrated by Notes. With an Introduction, by Lieut. Col. Macdonald, of the 1st Battalion of Cinque Port Volunteers, F R S. &c. 8vo. pp. 211. 5s. Boards. Egerton. 1804

Col. Macdonald's late translation of the Tactics of the French Army was mentioned by us with deserved encomium in our 43d Vol. p. 215; and we learn that it has experienced universal approbation. The appearance of the present tract lays the public under fresh obligations to the zeal, intelligence, and activity of the Colonel; and though the opinions, which he delivers in his introductory pages, respecting the invasion of this country, have not yet been verified, we know not that hence his judgment is to be questioned, or the danger to be contemned. Perhaps, on the contrary, the delay only gives strength and magnitude to the efforts of the enemy. At any rate, relaxation and false security on our part must be doubly prejudicial to us.

The translator states that this work is in great repute on the continent, particularly among French officers, and that it has 'run through several editions with increased interest.' It treats on the duties of Vedettes, by day and by night; on advanced Guards; on foraging and reconnoitring Detachments; on Encampments; on the attack of the hollow square, the column, lines, and intrenchments; on passing defiles and rivers; on surprising a town, or an army; on the wants and requisites, on the assembling and the marches, of a large army; on offensive and defensive war; and on the great battles which alone decide the fate of kingdoms. It must be supposed that these various topics are not very elaborately discussed in 140 octavo pages: but the work is rather to be considered as a manual, or abstract; and on all these points, a sufficient sketch of the officer's duty is traced, to render the volume a valuable camp-companion: especially when the rules and advice are considered as proceeding from a soldier of such established reputation and experience as General Wimpffen possesses.

The notes added by the translator contain many remarks worthy of notice. Among other observations, we find the Colonel strongly maintaining the utility of the Pike, for rear-rank men, in coincidence with the famous Marshal Saxe, and with many recent writers. We confess that we are somewhat surprized that no adoption of a plan of this nature has yet taken place.

POLITICAL.

Art. 29. *Remarks on the probable Conduct of Russia and France towards this Country*; also on the Necessity of Great Britain becoming independent of the Northern Powers for her maritime Supplies, and recommending (as the only Means of attaining that most important Object) the Encouragement of the British Shipping Interest, and the Cultivation of Naval Stores in Upper and Lower Canada: including Observations on the Report of the Society of Ship-Owners; the Commerce of the Mediterranean, the Canal, Wet Docks, and

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other Improvements in the Port of London; and on the British Settlements in North America. 8vo. pp. 107. 3s. Asperne, &c. 1805.

An apology is made by the author for dedicating this Miscellany to Mr. Pitt, and with reason: for as the minister's time is precious, he should not have called his attention, as if he had nothing to do, to such a variety of topics, but have confined his remarks to the specific object of his pamphlet—the Shipping Interest. Mr. Pitt requires no hints from this writer on the policy of Russia, and on the probable designs of France towards this country; nor was it requisite, after the discussions which have occurred, to blot any more paper with obvious common-place observations. If the facts be, as here stated, that Ship-Owners are engaged in a ruinous concern,—that few ships are building in the river except by Government,—that new ship breakers are starting up every day, who are making fortunes on the wrecks of our commercial marine,—and that the Wet Dock regulations will destroy our West-India nursery for seamen,—it is patriotic to direct the eyes of the minister to these points; and they would be more likely to be regarded, had they been "unmixed with other matter."

No doubt can be entertained of the importance of preserving the commerce of the Mediterranean; nor of the wisdom of rendering ourselves, if possible, independant of the Northern Powers for naval stores. We should consider how far it is possible to obtain hemp, timber, pitch, tar, &c. from British North America; and if it be practicable, which this writer maintains, no time should be lost in prosecuting this object. Canada is known to produce timber of various kinds in the greatest abundance; and though some difficulties obstruct the cultivation of hemp, they are here represented as not insurmountable.—But why think of distant commerce, and of improving a remote colony, 'if the case of Britain is desperate,' if 'we have no power of ourselves to help ourselves, and if we have no other remedy than—*Hope!*'

VOYAGES *and* TRAVELS.

Art. 28. *Modern Discoveries;* or, a Collection of Facts and Observations, principally relative to the various Branches of Natural History, resulting from the geological, topographical, botanical, physiological, mineralogical, and philosophical Researches of celebrated modern Travellers in every Quarter of the Globe. Carefully translated, prepared, and reprinted from the Works of the most eminent Authors, by Francis Blagdon, Esq. Vols. v.—viii. containing Prof. Pallas's Travels in Southern Russia. 12mo. 5s. each Vol.; or, on Royal Paper, with coloured Maps, &c. 7s. Boards. Ridgway.

We are happy to learn that this judicious and useful collection has experienced the approbation and encouragement of the public. The present volumes will not be found inferior to the preceding. With the exception of the Dedication to the Emperor Alexander, which arrived too late for insertion in its proper place, they contain a complete translation of Pallas's Travels through the Southern Provinces of the Russian Empire;—a translation which will not suffer by com-

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parison with that of the splendid quarto edition of the same work*. All the plates illustrative of character and manners have been retained; and, 'from the few views given in the original work, a specimen has been selected, which is by far the most interesting, as it exhibits the mode of travelling and encamping adopted by the Tartars; and from the back ground of this plate, the reader will be able to form a tolerable idea of the general appearance of the country over which the author pursued his course, as well as of the heavy nature of which the landscapes, drawn on such a region, must partake.'

The passages marked by inverted commas are translated from the former Travels, published 1768, and evince Mr. Blagdon's anxiety to bestow every proper attention on the execution of his undertaking.

By very satisfactory reasons, assigned in an advertisement prefixed to the 8th vol. the Publisher and the Editor have been mutually induced to suspend their former mode of publication; designing to resume it on the following plan:—'*A complete work*, of whatever extent it may happen to be, will be published at *one and the same time*, instead of the present mode of publishing each volume separately. By this method, a greater portion of time will be afforded to every person concerned in the undertaking, which must consequently receive a greater share of attention in its execution; while the advantage to be derived by the reader, from this new arrangement, is too obvious to need remark.'

Mr. B. pointedly contradicts a report that the publication is on the eve of being abandoned; and, as friends to every laudable method of facilitating access to the sources of useful knowlege, we hope that he will persevere in the prosecution of his design.

POETRY.

Art. 29. *Agricola Puer, poema Roberti Bloomfield celeberrimum; in versus Latinos redditum. Autore* Gulielmo Clubbe, L.L.B. 8vo. 3s. Cadell and Davies.

It gives us pleasure to announce Mr. Clubbe's complete version of Mr. Bloomfield's poem, "The Farmer's Boy." Of the first book, intitled *Ver*, we took some notice in M. R. Vol. xliii. p. 216. N. S.; and the lovers of elegant Latinity, especially learned foreigners who do not read our language, will feel themselves obliged by the addition of the *Æstas*, *Autumnus*, and *Hiems*. It is however impossible, in a Latin version, precisely to express every idea of the original; for the Roman poets afford no terms by which "*a brick floor*" and "*a hoop'd keg*" could be designated; and though Mr. Clubbe's line,

'*Servorum egreditur subridens Vernula et ipsa,*'

be as near the original as it could be made, it does not declare the quality of the servant, mentioned by Mr. B.; who, from her vocation, might least of all be supposed to attend the labours of the wheat harvest:

"E'en the domestic laughing *dairy maid.*"

* See Rev. Vols. xliii. and xlvi. N. S.

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Having adverted to the Harvest, we shall transcribe, as a specimen of Mr. Clubbe's execution, that part of SUMMER which includes a picture of *reaping*, *gleaning*, and the joy of the farmer on observing his teams bringing home the corn:

'Hic NATURA sedens varia inter agrestia dona
Ipsa vocat—"Validi MESSORES huc cito ferte
"Hinc opus acclines animos Cerealiaque arma."
Primo fasce caput mox attolente, juventus
Plus solito fervore viget ipsa senectus.
Non locus hic rastris—Coelestia munera dantur
Omnibus; O quibus est penuria nuda sodalis,
Vobis (vos erga sic stat divina voluntas)
Partibus ex æquis hæc munera læta parantur.
Ite domum Matres! vestram et deponite messem—
Ite domum pueri! vestros atque addite fasces.

'Acriter intendens nervos, solisque calori
Fortiter oppositus, Messor cum falce per agrum
Vi furit et raptim proceras sternit aristas:
Gramina sub segetes nascentia intacta relinquens.
Hucce *Salusque Jocusque!* nec adsitis pede lento;
Sit domus hic vobis et seram ludite in horam:
Omnibus optatos comites salvere jubemus.

'Stat tristis deserta domus; nam sola superstes
Servorum egreditur subridens Vernula et ipsa,
Ipsa suas partes non dedignata laboris.
Mox etiam Dominus de mensâ surgit, obesus,
Lentus, iners, largis nimis indulgensque lagenis.
Omnia sunt menti; videt unumquemque labori
Acriter intentum, jumenta et plaustra citantur
Vocibus et loris; fasces hic tendit onustos,
Ille strigas vertit, nec quidquam rastra relinquunt.
Exuitur vestis quanquam levis aptaque Soli.
Nunc onus, in gelidâ caute et seponitur umbra;
Hic jacet, irato torvoque tuente Molosso
Custode, accedat propius si forte viator:
Unusquisque jocos etiam petulantius effert;
Rusticum et ingenium formosâ virgine captum
Urbana affectat, præsens numenque fatetur.'

We are sorry to add that this elegant version, like the part which we formerly mentioned, is deformed by a few blunders; some of which are so gross that we can scarcely attribute them to any other source than the error of the press.

In *Autumnus*, l. 318. we meet with the expression *Exudent amnes*, which will probably excite a smile from the novelty of the idea. Of sweating rivers, we never before heard: but if we read *Exundent amnes*, *i. e.* rivers overflowing their banks, we shall be directed to a circumstance which not unfrequently attends rivers in the decline of the year.

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In *Hiems*, l. 65. we have '*ferialia ludia*,' though *ludi* (games) never occur in the neuter gender: perhaps Mr. C. meant *ludicra*, pastimes or gambols. L. 341. *invice* for *invicem*. L. 207. should run thus:

'*Debilis ex nati hic, ex parti debilis illa*,'

by a well known rule in Syntax; "*Hic et ille*," &c.

We have observed other verbal errors, besides those corrected in the list of errata, which is a matter to be regretted; because works in a dead language require peculiar correctness.

Art. 30. *Harry Dee*, or the Scotchman detected, a Poem in four Parts, by Edward Longshanks. 8vo. 1s. Jordan and Co.

In a strain of low humour and low allusion, the political life of a certain nobleman is here related, with a particular reference to some recent transactions. Harry Dee is traced

'From that chill clime beyond the Tweed,
Where honest men are scarce indeed,'

to London town, where he is cherished by *Tiger*, and becomes a great favourite with *John Bull*; in consequence of which he is entrusted with the iron chest. *Jack Tar*, however, suspects that *Harry* and his man *Trot* are not so honest as they should be, goes to Mrs. *Knab*, of Threadneedle-street, to make inquiries, and alarms John Bull:

'Harry is then desir'd to state,
And ev'ry circumstance relate,
And all the different times to count
He slyly went to old KNAB's mount;
He's ask'd to state the different sums
But Harry answers all by mums.'

More poetry of the same sort may be had by purchasing the pamphlet.

Art. 31. *Two Letters from Sandy M'Shuffle to Donald M'Shift*, his old Friend and Shool-fellow in Scotland. Containing a poetical Account of the recent Fall of a great Statesman. 8vo. 2s. Symonds.

Sandy M'Shuffle, in the manner of our old friend Simkin, details to his countrymen the whole of the business relative to Lord Melville; he puts the 10th Report and the whole debate on Mr. Whitbread's motion into verse; and by the mode of his narrative, he has contrived to exhibit certain parts of this affair in a ludicrous point of view.

Mr. Pitt's speech, as given by this poetical reporter, is no bad specimen of the humour and versification of this sly satyrist:

'These fine resolutions at length being done,
The House look'd resolv'd to resolve every one—
When Willy attack'd 'em, disdainful of fear,
In accents emphatic, and flowing and clear,
That seem'd, as his accents most commonly do,
To say, "Mister Whitbread, I'll soon silence you!"
That when he had once tried the strength of his lungs,
The rest of the House might as well hold their tongues.

And

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And who could have doubted, indeed, if he tried,
His strength and his *firmness* would soon turn the tide?
Though never was less by his eloquence won—
To this purpose he spoke—as it happen'd, to none:
"The Hon'rable Gentleman, when he began,
Engag'd he would speak like a temperate man;
Yet, when in the thick of his subject, he found
His temper forsook him, and fell to the ground:
And why? when I make it appear that the nation
Has lost not a jot by all this peculation."
At this a rude clamour express'd indignation.
A cry of "Hear, hear!" from all quarters was heard,
Which sometimes may mean that they won't hear a word.

'Now don't you think, Donald, for all they could say,
They couldn't have reason'd this doctrine away?—
Some people, determin'd his lordship to cross,
Very pertly inquire if our *honour's* no loss;
And little conceive how it shocks common sense
To confound empty words with pounds, shillings, and pence.

'But this disrespect Willy Pitt didn't mind;
He's always prepar'd to return it *in kind:*
Resolv'd to go on, on whatever he's bent,
He call'd them indecent—and then on he went:
And though his placidity too he'd forgot,
He had a good reason which Whitbread had not.
He thought that the House, for the good of the nation,
Had best *re-investigate investigation*;
And boldly maintain'd, what will bear no denial,
That his valuable friend hadn't had a fair trial—
(For, being a nobleman, Donald,—a Lord,
They only requir'd, his Right Hon'rable *word*;
Nor gave him a chance of such Old Bayley laws
As might purge his great name by *quirks, quibbles,* and *flaws,*)
Proposing, at length, that a motion be pass'd
For another Committee to sit on the last;
And there, he was sure, many facts might be brought
To prove he was not *quite so bad* as they thought.
'Twas cruel, he said, by the tongue or the pen
To force him to say what himself might condemn.
Now I don't think this reason was politic quite,
Because it implied there was danger he might.
Then he whisk'd their attentions about and about
On what was paid here, or was there taken out;
On points where you know that his genius ne'er slumbers,
Of payments and balances, figures and numbers;
From which it appear'd there was matter in store,
To say for his Hon'rable Friend a deal more;
Nay, prov'd from such sources, to puzzle and spite 'em,
'Twas easy to plead for him *ad infinitum.*'

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We usually read of the Commons House of Parliament, but Sandy M'Shuffle would surely have us believe that it is the *Comical* house of Parliament.

Art. 32. *A Poetical Epistle to the Right Hon. William Pitt.* 4to. 2s. 6d. Gray and Son. 1805.

The ministerial life of Mr. Pitt makes no enviable figure in the pages of this poetical historian; who boldly undertakes, with the freedom and poignancy of satire, to trace the Premier's career, from the brilliant promise of his rising sun to the dark and cloudy atmosphere which at present envelopes it. "How art thou fallen, O Lucifer! son of the morning!" is the melancholy burden of the song; and it is painful to reflect that Poetry, in the present instance, has so much plain truth, in plain prose, to justify her delineations. We shall not notice the facts on which the poet descants, to shew that Mr. Pitt has degenerated, and has fallen from his once proud elevation to a state mortifying to himself and humbling to the nation: but we shall satisfy ourselves with transcribing the conclusion of this bold expostulation, in which the satirist prophetically anticipates the fatal consequences of those measures which form the prominent features of Mr. Pitt's administrations.

'Such, Son of CHATHAM, is thy boasted claim
To rank with statesmen in the rolls of fame;
Such thy *past* deeds—but in the womb of fate
(Thy numerous offspring) greater ills await.
The muse prophetic sees with startled eyes,
O'er Albion's realm the storm of ruin rise,
To other shores her sail sees Commerce turn,
While Genius, Freedom, Arts, neglected mourn.
Pale and dejected see Britannia stand,
The sacred Trident trembling in her hand;
Her highest honour, and her proudest boast
To guard from hostile arms her sea-girt coast;
Who once the scourge of France, the dread of Spain,
Stretch'd her firm sceptre o'er the subject main,
While vanquish'd nations heard her thunders roll
From distant Ganges to the frozen Pole;
How great, how honor'd once avails her not,
Lost her fair lilies, and her fame forgot!
For thee, thy fancied race of glory run,
Thy lofty pride subdu'd—thy influence gone,
As Marius yielding to the storms of fate,
Amid the wrecks of fallen Carthage sate,
Thou seem'st, amid thy country's silent gloom,
The broken column of a mould'ring Dome.'

The notes form a proper commentary to the text; which, if it has not all the nerve that satire should possess, yet manifests considerable force. Alliteration in one place is carried to excess;

—— 'Apostate *from fair Freedom's friends.*'

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 33. *The Juvenile Tourist;* or Excursions through various Parts of the Island of Great Britain. Illustrated with Maps, and interspersed

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spersed with historical Anecdotes and poetical Extracts. In a Series of Letters to a Pupil. Second Edition, with Alterations and Improvements. Including an original Account of the Royal Observatory at Greenwich, and an Outline of the populous Village of Islington. By John Evans, A.M., Islington. 12mo. 5s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co. 1805.

Much agreeable information is collected in this volume, which contains Tours to the south, east, west, and midland parts of Great Britain. The quotations from the poets and other authors are numerous; and several of the writer's own reflections shew him to be both the patron of good morals and the friend of liberty. This kind of publication for children, even though it should be merely compiled from other sources, may be very usefully substituted for many of their story-books, which are founded on fiction.

Art. 34. *A Picture of Worthing*; to which is added an Account of Arundel and Shoreham, with other Parts of the surrounding Country. By John Evans, A.M. 12mo. 3s. Boards. Arch.

Worthing, a small fishing town on the coast of Sussex, has lately become a place of resort for sea-bathing, and has in course received many alterations and additions. Mr. Evans states that, in the summer of 1804, he was one of its visitors; and that, finding the want of a descriptive account of the place and its neighbourhood, he was induced to minute down his own observations, and to augment them by reference to various sources of information after his return to London. The valetudinarian and the idler, who lounge away the weary hour in the confines of Worthing, will find themselves indebted to Mr. Evans for the pains which he has taken, in thus compiling an amusing and useful vade-mecum. Of Worthing itself, little can be said, in the department of history, and not much in the way of description: but numerous adjacent objects of attention, towns, villages, castles, &c. contribute to fill Mr. Evans's pages; as a visit to them will contribute to occupy the time and increase the pleasure of the traveller.

Art. 35. *Edwy and Bertha*; or the Force of Connubial Love. By John Corry. 12mo. 1s. 6d. Crosby.

The period to which this historical romance refers was that of the ninth century, when the renowned Alfred sat on the English throne. Edwy distinguished himself as a warrior in the struggles between the English and the Danes: but at length, in a fatal contest, he was subdued and made their prisoner. The scene of his confinement in a dungeon at York gives occasion to the writer to display the force of connubial love, in the tender interview between Edwy and Bertha. While the former is here awaiting the summons of the executioner, Alfred arrives and triumphs in his turn over the Danes. Edwy is saved: but the sudden transition from sorrow to joy is too powerful for Bertha, and she expires on hearing the news.—It may be easily supposed that, from such interesting events, much sensibility may be excited by a skilful author; and such is certainly the effect produced in the present instance.

SINGLE SERMONS.

Art. 36. *The Progress of Error concerning the Person of Christ*: delivered at the Unitarian Chapel in Essex-street, March 31, 1805. By Thomas Belsham. 8vo. 1s. Johnson.

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This intelligent and strenuous advocate for the Unitarian doctrine commences his office of pastor to the Unitarian Society in Essex-street, by reprobating the popular opinions respecting the Person of Christ, by contending for his proper Humanity, and by urging the importance of obtaining correct sentiments on this head, in order to be secured from Christian Idolatry. Mr. B. represents the opinion of the first disciples concerning Christ to have been that he was a Man, like other men; and he is persuaded that, while the Christian church consisted only of Jewish converts, no other idea was entertained. When, however, the Church extended itself to the Gentile world, the converts from polytheism, he supposes, either to avoid the reproach of being the followers of a crucified Jew, or from the habit of deification, soon changed their admiration and reverence for their Master into adoration, considering him as a Mortal invested with the honours of divinity; and hence, he thinks, the progress was easy to a belief in his absolute equality with the Father, and in the Trinity, which in the fifth or sixth century assumed its proper shape.

To what may be termed a history of the Trinity, Mr. B. subjoins some useful reflections; in which he urges the infinite importance of inquiring after Christian truth, in order that correct notions may be formed respecting the proper object of religious worship. He will not allow Error to be altogether harmless, nor to shelter itself under the usual pretext, viz. that there are good men of all persuasions. Truth is a jewel which the preacher considers as beyond all price; and he exhorts his new flock to make every exertion towards its attainment.

Art. 37. *Self Defence.*—By the Rev. Cornelius Miles, Captain of Volunteers. 8vo. 6d. Champante and Co.

Wearing a red as well as a black coat, this gentleman has not improperly taken for his motto the words of Hamlet:

> "'Tis not alone my inky cloak,
> Nor customary suits of solemn black,
> That can denote me truly."

Yet it must not hence be concluded that the Rev. Captain is enamoured of war, and longs to flesh his newly acquired sword. He is thoroughly aware of the discordance between the spirit of the gospel and the spirit of war; he wishes to live in peace with all men: but he maintains that this is not always possible, and that a case may exist in which war is necessary and inevitable. The golden age is fled; and as long as the malevolent are prepared to injure, and the powerful to commit unprincipled aggression, so long will self-defence be justifiable. Mr. Miles confines this principle within the strictest limit, and applies his argument only to war purely *defensive*.

CORRESPONDENCE.

S. P. accuses us of mistake, but is himself in an error when he says that 'Sir Joseph Banks does not make a single observation on the disease called *Smut* in wheat;' and in our account of Sir Joseph's pamphlet, (Rev. for April last) he will find an extract in which 'Smut is supposed to begin in the form of rust on the leaves,' and to be attributed to a

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fungus. We know as well as S. P. that *Blight* and *Smut* are distinct effects: but the question is, do not both result from the same original cause? We are inclined to believe that they do: but perhaps the diseased condition of the plant, owing to cold nights and frosts during the most tender state of its vegetation, is the primary cause of the growth of the fungus, which in one instance prevents the ascent of the sap and causes lean corn, and in the other converts the farinaceous substance of the grain into a puff ball. Our argument did not require us nicely to discriminate between the two diseases of *rust* and *smut*; we merely wished our agricultural readers to consider whether the fungi noticed by Sir J. Banks were the original source of these diseases, or only the result of an injury which the plant had received during its growth, from inclement seasons; and by which its pores, being filled with stagnated and inspissated sap, or with other dead matter, afforded a matrix in which the seed of the fungi could vegetate.

Our Correspondent who signs *Venandi Cupidus* is requested to recollect, on the 1st of September, (or thereabouts) that he is indebted to us in a *Brace of Birds*, as a compensation for the postage of his letter. With respect to its contents, we must confess that 'sporting works' are not much within the province of literary censors, nor perfectly adapted to their habits and taste. Occasionally, however, when such publications come before us, we shall endeavour to oblige this correspondent; —especially if he remembers the Partridges.

We must be excused for observing to Mr. B., of Huddersfield, that he has rather mistaken the channel through which he wishes to convey his laudable views to a brother practitioner. A Magazine would have been a proper medium, if he declines private communication; and if he wishes it, we will transmit his letter to any of these repositories which he may prefer.

In a letter from the Rev. Rowland Ingram, that gentleman remarks that, in our account of his "Reflections on Duelling," (Rev. for May last,) we opposed his principle that 'the Christian religion sanctions a military *life*, or the profession of arms;' and he intimates that this opposition is at variance with sentiments formerly given by us, and is now anti-patriotic. We, however, beg to deny both of these latter positions. The principle of self-defence does not imply *systematic war*; which, though it may be necessary in the present state of Europe, is not to be sanctioned by the mild spirit of the gospel. Mr. Ingram, in his letter, speaks of a *conditional* assent to the lawfulness of war on Christian principles, which certainly did not particularly strike us in reading his pamphlet: but, as this work is not now before us, we cannot precisely discuss this point.

Mr. Taylor's letter, from Manchester, is received, and we shall endeavour to give the subject of it as much attention as other numerous and more weighty engagements will allow.

☞ In the Review for June, p. 163. l. 9. for 'Zuccius,' r. *Lucilius*.

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THE
MONTHLY REVIEW,
For AUGUST, 1805.

ART. I. *Travels in China:* containing Descriptions, Observations, and Comparisons, made and collected in the Course of a short Residence at the Imperial Palace of Yuen-min-yuen; and on a subsequent Journey through the Country from Pekin to Canton. In which it is attempted to appreciate the Rank that this extraordinary Empire may be considered to hold in the Scale of civilized Nations. By John Barrow, Esq, late Private Secretary to the Earl of Macartney, and one of his Suite as Ambassador from the King of Great Britain to the Emperor of China. Illustrated with several Engravings. 4to. pp. 622. 2l. 12s. 6d. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1804.

OF a country such as China, so much celebrated, and so little known, a description composed from the writer's own observation is sure of attracting general curiosity. Soon after the return of the British Embassy to that empire, Sir George Staunton published two quarto volumes, or rather one quarto volume concerning China, which were read with avidity *. Mr. Barrow was, as well as Sir G. S., a component part of the Embassy; and the mere appearance of his quarto virtually announces that he has new matter to communicate: if not, in the most limited sense, new facts, yet new views of them, with corresponding inferences and reflections. Indeed, so far are we from being displeased at an additional publication from the same travelling *firm*, and so far from sympathizing with Mr. Barrow in his indignation against *one Æneas Anderson* †, that we wish that every person in the Embassy, in any degree intitled to regard, would have recorded the objects which he noticed, and the ideas that occurred to him. At present, we are only collecting the rudiments of Chinese history; and we ought to act agreeably to the rules and injunctions of the great founder of Experimental Philosophy, by first

* See Rev. Vol. xxiv. N. S. pp. 67. 121. 241.

† See Rev. Vol. xvii. N. S. p. 71. Mr. Anderson's papers are said to have been *prepared for the press* by the late Dr. Coombes, author of the *Diaboliad*.

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stating mere facts, with fidelity and exactness. It is the business of a remoter period, and of riper knowlege, to arrange such materials into classes, to enliven them by remark, and to point them with precept: but, from the present fashion of writing, it is difficult to view facts in their complete nudity; since they are dressed out in the finery of philosophic reflection, and encumbered by the embellishments of comment. They do not come to us pure and unadulterated, but in conjunction with prejudice and partiality; tinctured with the spirit of system, and distorted by generalization; and we want some test, some preparation of critical chemistry, to precipitate the primary substances from their adventitious combinations. A substitute for such a test may be procured from the different relations of the same series of occurrences; and hence it is, that, from the three publications respecting China, our knowlege of that country must necessarily be more exact, than it could have been if derived from one singly, even if each professed to narrate the same identical events.

Mr. Barrow, however, communicates much new information: yet when we viewed his quarto of 600 pages, succeeding the volumes of Sir George Staunton, concerning China and Pekin, during a short residence, (or, according to the author's confession, an imprisonment of forty days,) the modern art of book-making presented itself to our minds, and we thought of the blessing of living in times of such refinement. Still the author has performed wonders, and it is but justice to acknowlege that we perused his work without fatigue or vexation.

We have suggested the propriety of being contented, for the present, with merely collecting facts respecting a country so new to us as China: but Mr. B. practically dissents from the propriety of this rule; and he has, we think, been lavish of his inferences, his comments, and his reflections. He has not always viewed things unbiassed by national partiality; and he has made some statements, for which it is not easy to conceive how he acquired adequate information. If an American, without introductions, were to take up his abode in a London Hotel, could he be qualified to write the domestic history of London Citizens? Yet Mr. B., confined and guarded in the Pekin Hotel, gives us an account of the fire-side manners and home regulations of a Chinese family. Some circumstances are of such a nature that they may be related generally, and with their comment: for instance, if the Chinese houses in the cold season readily admit cold, and heat in the hot season, there is no rule, in caution or philosophy, that forbids us from at once saying that their houses in this respect are incommodious and ill-contrived: but Chinese Architecture is not necessarily to be blamed,

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blamed, because their columns are not decorated with what we call capitals; nor because their roofs seem enormous, while such roofs are properly supported. Neither is the naval architecture of the Chinese necessarily bad, because their barges are unlike ours; for the former are adapted to the rivers in which they float, sail well, and are very convenient.

We acknowlege that Mr. Barrow possesses much good sense, and much discrimination: but, during the perusal of his book, we have not trusted implicitly to his assertions. Before we committed a fact to the charge and keeping of our memory, we considered whether it was actually known to the author himself; or, if no mention was made concerning this condition, whether it was such as a stranger, situated like the author, could easily and adequately ascertain. Some relations, we suspect, are given in the volume before us on hearsay, or on vague or presumptive evidence; and some general conclusions are, in our opinion, tinctured with European prejudices. We think that we shall be borne out in these remarks, by the extracts which it is our purpose to exhibit: it is now time to consider particularly the work itself.

At the beginning of the volume, we meet with a piece of information before unknown to us, viz. that the East India Company have derived considerable advantage from the Embassy, and that the expences of it did not exceed the amount of a tax of two per cent. on the annual merchandise exported from Canton to England. In the latter part of the volume, we find the English expences estimated at 80,000 l.; and the Chinese, at the enormous sum (considering the short residence of our Embassy in China) of 170,000 l. If the mission was not completely successful, its better fortune could not have been attained by any ceremonious servilities on our part, by ludicrous prostrations, and by a degenerate departure from our national character and spirit. This statement, where it is necessary to be proved, *is* proved by Mr. B. and humourously, by citing the treatment of the Dutch Embassy, of Van Braam and his companions. These gentlemen, after having prostrated themselves before the ideal presence of the Emperor, and knocked their heads on the ground 270 times, were miserably fed, lodged in a stable, and failed in the object of their visit.

In the relation of circumstances concerning China, Mr. B. professes to follow, as a rule, the spirit of the well-known passage,

" Nothing extenuate
Nor set down aught in malice :"

yet, in spite of his professions, we not unfrequently fancy that we discern an inclination to depreciate the Chinese. ' The Pilots,' he says, ' we found to be more dangerous than useful.'

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Might not the Chinese Pilots have been accustomed solely to vessels of small burden? In p. 54. he confesses that the Chinese Pilot gave proper advice, and very calmly viewed the appearance of danger, to which the ship was exposed. In that part of his work in which Mr. B. states the above paradoxical opinion, we meet with an observation not clearly understood by us: the word *Van*, he says, means ten thousand, yet it is never used to signify ten thousand, even when it is necessary to specify that number. How, then, does Mr. B. ascertain that the term implies ten thousand?—It appears to us that we also observe a disposition to depreciate the Chinese in what the author says concerning their sea enterprizes: 'When a ship leaves the port of Canton, it is considered as an equal chance that she will never return.' This may be true, but it is strange; and, in the next page, the author endeavours to assign the origin of Chinese Canals to their want of naval skill:

'The losses, (says he,) occasioned among the ships that were employed to transport the taxes paid in kind from the ports of the southern and middle provinces to the northern capital, were so great, at the time of the Tartar Conquest, in the thirteenth century, that the successors of Gengis Khan were induced to open a direct communication between the two extremes of the empire, by means of the rivers and canals; an undertaking that reflects the highest credit on the Mongul Tartars, and which cannot fail to be regarded with admiration, as long as it shall continue to exist. The Chinese, however, say, that the Tartars only repaired the old works that were fallen into decay.'

If there were a Canal from London to Edinburgh, would not goods be sent by such Canal, rather than by the sea route, notwithstanding our great and undisputed seamanship?—It is very probable that the Chinese are not able to build such a ship as the *Hibernia:* but Mr. B. expressly states that their barges are more convenient than ours, and that a Chinese Junk outsailed the Clarence brig.

At Tien-sing, the northern Emporium of China, Mr. B. noticed vast stacks of salt; sufficient, according to a rough calculation, for the annual consumption of thirty millions of people. On the occasion of the barges of the Embassy passing this city, he very entertainingly describes the scene that presented itself:

'The crowds of large vessels lying close together along the sides of the river; the various kinds of craft passing and repassing; the town and manufactories and warehouses extending on each bank as far as the eye could reach, indicated a spirit of commerce far beyond any thing we had hitherto met with. The large vessels, the small craft, the boats, the shores, the walls surrounding the houses, the roofs were all covered with spectators. Our barges, being retarded in

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in the narrow passages among the shipping, were at least two hours in reaching the head of the town. During the whole time the populace stood in the water, the front rank up to the middle, to get a peep at the strangers. Hitherto among the spectators there had generally appeared full as many of the fair sex as of the other; and the elderly dames, in particular, had been so curious as to dip their little stumps into the water in order to have a peep into the barges as they glided slowly along; but here, among the whole crowd, not a single female was visible. Although the day was extremely sultry, the thermometer of Fahrenheit being 88° in the shade, as a mutual accomodation their heads were all uncovered, and their bald pates exposed to the scorching rays of the sun. It was an uncommon spectacle to see so many bronze-like heads stuck as close together, tier above tier, as Hogarth's groupe, intended to display the difference between character and caricature, but it lacked the variety of countenance which this artist has, in an inimitable manner, displayed in his picture.

'The deep sounding *gong*, a sort of brazen kettle struck with a mallet, and used in the barges to direct the motions of the trackers on shore, the kettle drums and the trumpets in the military band, the shrill music and squalling recitative in the theatre, which was entirely open in front, and facing the river in full view of the crowd: the number of temporary booths and buildings erected for the use of the viceroy, governor, judges, and other officers of government, and gaily decorated with ribbands and silken streamers; the buzz and merriment of the crowd had, altogether, so striking an affinity to the usual entertainments of Bartholomew fair, that no extraordinary stretch of the imagination was required to suppose ourselves for the moment to have been transported into Smithfield. We instantly acquitted the Chinese of any want of curiosity. The arrival of Elfi Bey in London drew not half the crowd; and yet the Chinese account us much greater barbarians than we pretend to consider the mamelukes. The old viceroy of the province, a Tartar of mild and winning manners, had prepared for us a most magnificent entertainment with wine, fruits, and great variety of pastry and sweetmeats, together with presents of tea, silk, and nankins, not only to the Embassador and his suite, but also to the servants, musicians, and soldiers.'

There is a little *inconsequence* in the passage, 'The arrival of Elfi Bey,' &c. The greater the barbarian, the more curiosity will there be to see him.

As a farther specimen of Mr. B.'s powers of description, and as an amusing passage, we extract the account of the scene which the high street of Pekin exhibited to the Embassy:

'The multitude of moveable workshops of tinkers and barbers, coblers and blacksmiths; the tents and booths where tea and fruit, rice and other eatables were exposed for sale, with the wares and merchandise arrayed before the doors, had contracted this spacious street to a narrow road in the middle, just wide enough for two of our little vehicles to pass each other. The cavalcade of officers and soldiers that preceded the embassy, the processions of men in office attended by

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their numerous retinues, bearing umbrellas and flags, painted lanterns, and a variety of strange insignia of their rank and station, different trains that were accompanying, with lamentable cries, corpses to their graves, and, with squalling music, brides to their husbands, the troops of dromedaries laden with coals from Tartary, the wheel barrows and hand carts stuffed with vegetables, occupied nearly the whole of this middle space in one continued line, leaving very little room for the cavalcade of the embassy to pass. All was in motion The sides of the street were filled with an immense concourse of people, buying and selling and bartering their different commodities The buzz and confused noises of this mixed multitude proceeding from the loud bawling of those who were crying their wares, the wrangling of others, with every now and then a strange twanging noise like the jarring of a cracked Jew's harp, the barber's signal made by his tweezers, the mirth and the laughter that prevailed in every groupe, could scarcely be exceeded by the brokers in the Bank rotunda, or by the Jews and old women in *Rosemary Lane.* Pedlars with their packs, and jugglers, and conjurers, and fortune-tellers, mountebanks and quack-doctors, comedians and musicians, left no space unoccupied. The Tartar soldiers, with their whips, kept with difficulty a clear passage for the embassy to move slowly forwards; so slow indeed, that although we entered the eastern gate at half past nine, it was near twelve before we arrived at the western.'

The city of Pekin being uniform in the disposition of its streets, and in the construction of its houses, very little novelty is to be found after a five minutes' walk in that capital. According to our author, a traveller must immediately perceive that the Chinese Architecture is void of taste, grandeur, beauty, solidity, or convenience. We have no means of controverting this statement, if we are inclined to doubt that it is exact: but we wish that, instead of a coloured View in the Imperial Park, which teaches us nothing, Mr. B. had given a plan of a Chinese house, and described the means by which its stability is accomplished.

The Chinese affect to consider us as barbarians. Astonishment, therefore, on their part, at any manufacture or machinery of ours, was a sort of triumph over their prejudices; yet they would scarcely believe the evidence of their eyes, when they saw Gill's sword-blades cut iron bars, without injuring their edge.—A most remarkable circumstance took place in the unpacking of the curiosities. In the middle of a cask of Birmingham hardware, made as tight as possible, and covered with painted canvas, an enormous scorpion was found, torpid, but soon animated by exposure to warm air. Mr. B. states the fact, and leaves his reader to wonder, doubt, and conjecture: but he ought surely to have thrown some light on the occurrence.

Lord

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Lord Macartney, it is well known, refused to go through the prostrations exacted by the Chinese Court; and the ludicrous consternation which this refusal occasioned among the Eunuchs, and among the creatures of form, of ceremony, and of etiquette, is well related by the present author:

'On going as usual in the morning to the hall of audience, I found the doors shut and the old eunuch, who kept the keys, walking about in so sullen a mood that I could not get from him a single word. Different groupes of officers were assembled in the court-yard, all looking as if something very dreadful either had occurred, or was about to happen. Nobody would speak to me, nor could I get the least explanation of this extraordinary conduct, till at length our friend Deodato (one of the Italian missionaries) appeared with a countenance no less woeful than those of the officers of government, and the old eunuch. I asked him what was the matter? His answer was, We are all lost, ruined, and undone! He then informed me that intelligence had arrived from Gehol, stating, that Lord Macartney had refused to comply with the ceremony of prostrating himself like the Embassadors of tributary princes, nine times before the Emperor, unless one of equal rank with himself should go through the same ceremony before the portrait of his Britannic Majesty: that rather than do this they had accepted his offer to perform the same ceremony of respect to the Emperor as to his own sovereign. That although little was thought of this affair at Gehol, the great officers of state in the tribunal or department of ceremonies in Pekin were mortified, and perplexed, and alarmed; and that, in short, it was impossible to say what might be the consequence of an event unprecedented in the annals of the empire. That the Emperor, when he began to think more seriously on the subject, might possibly impeach those before the criminal tribunal who had advised him to accede to such a proposal, on reflecting how much his dignity had suffered by the compliance; and that the records of the country might hand it down to posterity, as an event that had tarnished the lustre of his reign, being nothing short of breaking through an ancient custom, and adopting one of a barbarous nation in its place. Deodato thought even that its ill effects might extend to them, as Europeans, and might injure the cause which was the first object of their mission.

'I found it in vain to put into good humour that day either the officers of government, or the eunuchs, or even the missionaries; and our table was very materially affected by it, both in the number and the quality of dishes;—a criterion from which, more than any other, a judgment may be formed of the state of mind in which a Chinese happens to be. Something of the same kind, it seems, occurred at Gehol From the time the Embassador began to make conditions, his table was abridged, under an idea that he might be starved into an unconditional compliance Finding this experiment fail, they had recourse to a different conduct, and became all kindness and complaisance.'

That the taste, ingenuity, and science of the Chinese have been much over-rated, is either the drift of Mr. B.'s publica-

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tion, or an inference from it; yet they have not, in all things been totally misrepresented: they understand the art of gardening, and of planning pleasure grounds. Sir William Chambers's descriptions, however, are, according to our author, rather fanciful and extravagant; yet it is acknowleged that, in the gardens of Yuen-min-yuen, among its vast and various artificial scenery, nothing is done which can be considered as an offence against nature.

The grounds of Yuen-min-yuen belong to the Emperor; they occupy an extent ten miles in diameter, and contain sixty thousand acres Immense labour has been bestowed on them; and Lakes and mountains have been created. Yet the palaces of the Emperor within the inclosure, stripped of their gilding and gaudy colours, are very little superior to the barns of an English farmer. The testimony of Lord Macartney, given in an extract, coincide with that of Mr. B. His Lordship thinks that Chinese gardening is unrivalled for 'its beauty, sublimity, and amenity.'

Chapter the fourth treats on an interesting subject, and which is very little known to us, viz. on the state of Chinese Society; on the Manners, Customs, Sentiments, and Moral Character of the People. The opinions and statements of Mr. B., here delivered, are partly founded on observation, but chiefly, we suppose, on hearsay evidence: for the Chinese are stated to be very cautious in excluding strangers from their houses, and their jealousy must have been on the alert during the residence of the Embassy at Pekin. *Domiciliary* visits were then, probably, very rare; and, if the author's account may be trusted, such visits,—novelty being worn off, and curiosity gratified,—could have little in them to entertain an European; since females were debarred from male company and conversation, and there were no cards, nor balls, nor concerts. Yet a nation is not necessarily barbarous, because women are excluded from society, and considered as inferior beings. In Greece, the seat of arts and sciences, women enjoyed no enviable condition. The seclusion of the sex, however, may fairly be set down as one cause of the want of pleasantness, hilarity, and frankness in Chinese manners; and, being ignorant and mere slaves, more than half their alluring and fascinating power is lost; which is probably the cause of the Chinese being so much addicted to that unnatural practice, which Englishmen especially hold in abhorrence. That they *are* addicted to it, there is no doubt, for they have not blushed to represent in statuary the commission of the fact.—Events and circumstances, which strew flowers and dart sunshine on the path of an Englishman in his journey of life, have no place among

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the Chinese. The young of each sex meet not together, nor have they any courtship: a wife is sold to her husband, and, like other things sold, becomes his property. When the business of the day is over, brothers and sisters assemble not to pass an evening of social merriment, but each retires to the churlish solitude of his dim taper. Education may have made us what we are, but an European must pine away under the unkind discipline of Chinese manners.—From this gloomy portrait, we turn with different dispositions to a slight and humourous sketch of their finesse:

'The general character, however, of the nation is a strange compound of pride and meanness, of affected gravity and real frivolousness, of refined civility and gross indelicacy. With an appearance of great simplicity and openness in conversation, they practise a degree of art and cunning against which an European is but ill prepared. Their manner of introducing the subject of the court ceremonies in conversation with the Embassador is no bad specimen of their sly address in managing matters of this sort. Some of them observed, by mere accident as it were, how curious it was to see the different modes of dress that prevailed among different nations: this naturally brought on a comparison between theirs and ours, the latter of which they pretended to examine with critical attention. After a good deal of circumlocutory observations, they thought their own entitled to the preference, being more convenient, on account of its being made wide and loose and free from tight ligatures; whereas ours must be exceedingly uneasy and troublesome in any other posture than that of standing upright; and particularly so in making the genuflexions and prostrations which were customary and indeed necessary to be performed by all persons whenever the Emperor appeared in public. No notice being taken of this broad hint, so artfully introduced, they proceeded to compare their wide petticoats with our breeches, and to contrast the play and freedom of their knee-joints with the obstruction that our knee-buckles and garters must necessarily occasion. This brought them directly to the point, and they finished by recommending, in the warmth of their friendship, that we should disencumber ourselves of our breeches, as they would certainly be inconvenient to appear in at court.'

In the fifth chapter, Mr. B. gives an account of the Emperor, his court, his palaces, and the shews, feats, &c. performed for his entertainment. Of the palaces, we need not again mention Mr. B.'s contemptuous notice: suffice it to say that they are represented as inelegant and inconvenient. The pleasures and amusements of the great Monarch of China are ably described in an extract from Lord Macartney's private Journal; too long, however, to form a quotation in our pages.

Mr. Barrow has certainly talents for humorous description. Two officers of state, Van-ta-gin, and Chou-ta-gin,—grave from office and dignity, but good humoured, and when they had

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had thrown off their robes, not averse to pleasure,—were appointed to attend the Embassy. When Van-ta-gin and Chouta-gin met in a morning in the precincts of the palace, they regularly and solemnly went through all the genuflexions and motions of the body which the ceremonial Institutes of the Empire require; to the no small entertainment of the English spectators. At Canton, our author was privately invited by an old acquaintance of the Chinese conductors to spend an evening on board a yacht. On entering the cabin, whom did he find, but Van and Chous, each with a young girl by his side, drinking hot wine!

'We passed a most convivial evening, free from any reserve or restraint, but on going away I was particularly desired by *Van* not to take any notice of what I had seen, apprehensive, I suppose, that their brother officers might condemn their want of prudence in admitting a barbarian to witness their relaxation from good morals. The yacht and the ladies, it seemed, were hired for the occasion.'

Human nature is the same in China and in countries ten thousand miles distant.

The palace of the Chinese Emperor is infested with Eunuchs, who are not exempt from the failings and vices that are usually attributed to that class of creatures: they are busy, meddling, intriguing, revengeful; and, what is strange, they all keep women! The Keeper of the Hall of Audience, a black Eunuch, (one of the *Rasibus*,) had his lady. He was, says Mr. B., the most capricious creature in the world: sometimes extremely civil and communicative, sometimes sullen, and not deigning to open his lips; and whenever he took it into his head to be offended, he was sure to practise some little revenge. The presents for the Emperor were arranged with considerable trouble by the English, in the Hall of Audience, so as to appear to the greatest advantage: but the black Eunuch did not like the arrangement; and he would have every thing placed at one end of the room, in order "that his Majesty might see them at once from his throne, without being at the trouble of turning his head."

Chapter VI., which relates to the Language, the Literature, the fine Arts, and the Sciences of the Chinese, is interesting and instructive. It commences with a refutation of the idea that the Chinese language is hieroglyphical, and of certain of Dr. Hager's opinions:

'Of all deductions, those drawn from etymological comparisons are, perhaps, the most fallacious. Were these allowed to have any weight, the Chinese spoken language is of such a nature, that it would be no difficult task to point out its relationship to that of every nation upon earth.

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earth. Being entirely monosyllabic, and each word ending in a vowel or a liquid, and being, at the same time, deprived of the sounds of several letters in our alphabet, it becomes necessarily incapable of supplying any great number of distinct syllables. Three hundred are, in fact nearly as many as an European tongue can articulate, or ear distinguish. It follows, of course, that the same sound must have a great variety of significations. The syllable *ching*, for example, is actually expressed by fifty-one different characters, each having a different, unconnected, and opposite meaning; but it would be the height of absurdity, to attempt to prove the coincidence of any other language with the Chinese, because it might happen to possess a word something like the sound of *ching*, which might also bear a signification not very different from one of those fifty-one that it held in the Chinese.'

The present chapter sufficiently explains the difficulty of learning Chinese. No language, whether we regard its written combinations or the pronunciation of its words, can be constructed with less art and system. Yet the characters are so contrived as to convey to the eye the meaning of ideas both simple and compound: but then allusions are made, not solely to the general features and traits of nature, nor to human passions and affections, nor to obvious metaphors and allegories, but to customs, national habits, and peculiar trains of thinking. To learn the language with facility, a man ought to possess the talent of exploring the mysteries of riddles and enigmas; and, which in conversation or in oratory must be an insufferable nuisance, every character, however compounded, is represented only by a monosyllabic sound; consequently the sound for no compound word has any connection with the sounds for the elements of the compound. With us, such words as house-keeper, chair-man, chamber-maid, table-cloth, &c. would be understood by a foreigner who knew the meaning of the sounds of the component parts: but the Chinese denote the word *happiness*, for instance, by one monosyllabic sound, '*foo*,' which is compounded of four distinct characters, signifying, *shee*, a demon, *ye*, one, *koo*, a mouth, and *tien*, a piece of cultivated ground. We have mentioned the meaning of the elementary symbols, because we think that a man possessing the learning and genius of Aristotle would not necessarily be able to comprehend, that the combination of the four symbols designates 'Happiness'—The inhabitants of the southern and northern provinces of China do not understand each other in conversation: the sound in Pekin, for *one*, in Canton expresses *two*: but the written language of China is understood by the inhabitants of Japan, Tonquin, and Cochin-China; though, if pronounced, it is mutually unintelligible.—The author gives a particular account of the mode by which a young

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young Chinese is instructed in the language of his country, and suggests proper alterations in the practice.

In the colloquial language of China, an European may make out 342 simple monosyllabic sounds; which, by aspirates, inflexions, or accentuations, may be increased by a Chinese to 1331 words: but the written language contains 80,000 characters: so that, on an average, 60 characters of different signification are called by the same monosyllabic sound. What ambiguity, and what difficulty of understanding a written composition, must hence arise! Of the mistake that occasionally ensues, the author relates a pleasant anecdote: 'A sober missionary, intending to pass the night at a peasant's house, asked, as he thought, for a *mat*, but was very much surprised on seeing his host presenting him with a *young girl*; these two objects, so very different from one another, being signified by two words whose pronunciations are not distinguishable, and consequently one or the other requires to be used with an adjunct.'

Mr. B. gives a brief account of the Tartar or Mantchoo language.

Chinese literature and science has, during the long period of two thousand years, been nearly stationary: but they have a tradition of a great destruction of books, by order of one of their emperors, 200 years before Christ. The books chiefly read, and but little understood, are the five classics 'collected and commented on by their great philosopher Cong-foo-tze, 450 years before the Christian Æra;' these have been translated paraphrastically by the Jesuits. Indeed all the writings of the Chinese, translated by the Jesuits, have been adorned and disguised by European dresses: an abominable practice in translators. We are almost ignorant of the Chinese: it is desirable to know how they can think, and how they can express their thoughts: therefore, all versions of their writings ought to be exact and literal. From a specimen in English by Sir W. Jones of a stanza in a Chinese Ode, Mr. B. gives his readers a proper caution to beware of translations from Asiatic compositions.

The science of the Chinese is at a low ebb. Astronomy is highly esteemed, and little understood; being mixed and debased with astrology, which gives to Chinese superstition bad days and good days. Eclipses are a subject of terror; and at their commencement, mourning is worn by the inhabitants of China, the vaunted country of the Arts and Sciences. These eclipses are indeed noted in their almanacks, but the almanacks are not calculated by them. Kublai Khan employed his Tartars to calculate, instead of Chinese, because the latter had become inexpert and inaccurate.

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The arts, mechanical and manual, have made among the Chinese a greater progress than the sciences. Iron is wrought under the hammer, and is cast: colours are prepared, and porcelain is manufactured to perfection: gunpowder is made, not, as with us, in vast mills, but in small parcels: every soldier furnishing his own gunpowder. The Chinese are uncommonly quick in learning an art: they now not only make Cuckoo clocks, (formerly an article of importation,) but watches, and intricate pieces of machinery, similar to those that have been sent from Europe. The Bamboo is curiously and variously manufactured; and Chinese toys, made of ivory, are unrivalled. The colours used by this people are very vivid and beautiful: but we have long been witnesses of their ignorance in the rules of perspective, and in the arts of painting.—Their skill in Architecture, we have already remarked, is rated very lowly by Mr. B.; of a bridge, he has condescended to give us a sketch, but the description of it is imperfect; and we are unable distinctly to perceive how it is put together.

At the close of this chapter, Mr. B. observes:

'Having thus given a slight sketch of the state of some of the leading branches in science, arts, and manufactures, omitting purposely that of agriculture, which will be noticed among the subjects of a future section, I think, upon the whole it may fairly be concluded, that the Chinese have been among the first nations, now existing in the world, to arrive at a certain pitch of perfection, where, from the policy of the government, or some other cause, they have remained stationary: that they were civilized, fully to the same extent they now are, more than two thousand years ago, at a period when all Europe might be considered, comparatively, as barbarous; but that they have since made little progress in any thing, and been retrograde in many things: that, at this moment, compared with Europe, they can only be said to be great in trifles, whilst they are really trifling in every thing that is great. I cannot however exactly subscribe to an opinion pronounced on them by a learned and elegant writer*, who was well versed in oriental literature, as being rather too unqualified; but he was less acquainted with their character than that of any other Asiatic nation, and totally ignorant of their language. "Their letters," says he, "if we may so call them, are merely the symbols of ideas; their philosophy seems yet in so rude a state, as hardly to deserve the appellation; they have no ancient monuments from which their origin can be traced, even by plausible conjecture; their sciences are wholly exotic; and their mechanical arts have nothing in them characteristic of a particular family; nothing which any set of men, in a country so highly favoured by nature, might not have discovered and improved."

In the seventh chapter, Mr. Barrow discusses the Government, Laws, Taxes, Revenues, Civil and Military Establish-

'* Sir William Jones.'

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ments of China. These topics constitute an interesting inquiry, and are those on which a stranger might, with care, assiduity, and interest, obtain correct and ample information. The principle and theory of the government, being patriarchal, may claim some favour and respect: but it is patriarchal chiefly by name, and as it is announced by the edicts of the emperor. Forming our judgment from the scanty and imperfect history before us, we are not much in love with it: there are systems which are practically better, yet do not affect to be patriarchal. In the administration of Chinese government, however, some good points are observable: it is not very difficult to obtain redress of grievances; the criminal is sure of being punished, and *severely* punished: very few impositions could be practised against Europeans, if they had in Canton or China a strenuous advocate who was acquainted with the language; and a Chinese oppressor trembles before the indignant vociferation of an injured foreigner. He is, perhaps, indebted for his redress to the Chinese *affectation* of scrupulous justice: for there is some ground for the charge of affectation. The mighty Emperor of China is himself amenable to censure: two persons, embodied under the title of a censorate, are charged with the duties of remonstrating against any act of the Sovereign which appears detrimental to the empire, and of recording his public acts. As these records are lodged in a chest to which the Emperor cannot properly have access, they may possibly be expressed in the language of truth: at least the subsequent anecdote favours this supposition:

'An institution, so remarkable and singular in its kind, in an arbitrary government, could not fail to carry with it a very powerful influence upon the decisions of the monarch, and to make him solicitous to act, on all occasions, in such a manner, as would be most likely to secure a good name, and to transmit his character unsullied and sacred to posterity. The records of their history are said to mention a story of an Emperor, of the dynasty or family of *Tang*, who, from a consciousness of having, in several instances, transgressed the bounds of his authority, was determined to take a peep into the historical chest where he knew he should find all his actions recorded. Having made use of a variety of arguments, in order to convince the two censors that there could be nothing improper in the step he was about to take, as, among other things, he assured them, he was actuated with the desire only of being made acquainted with his greatest faults, as the first step to amendment, one of these gentlemen is said to have answered him very nobly, to this effect: "It is true your Majesty has committed a number of errors, and it has been the painful duty of our employment to take notice of them; a duty," continued he, "which further obliges us to inform posterity of the conversation which your Majesty has this day, very improperly, held with us."

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The principle of the division of labour is practically employed by the Chinese, in the administration of government: they have two Councils, and six Boards, presiding over things military, ceremonial, judicial, and financial, and over public works and appointments. The compendium of their laws, Mr. B. says, rivals Blackstone's Commentaries for perspicuity and method. The Chinese scale of crimes and punishments is meant to be scrupulously exact. In a note to p. 370, the author gives an account of a trial for unintentional homicide, very curious and interesting, and strongly marking the nice discrimination and moral scrupulousness of Chinese judicature: but it is too long for insertion in this place.

Some of their ordinances, however, are barbarous and unjust. In the crime of treason, the punishment, though alleviated, extends to the relations of the traitor. In the case of unintentional homicide, the perpetrator, in some circumstances, suffers death; and in no instance does he escape severe punishment. If a Chinese should by accident be wounded, he must not expect relief; since the person who relieves him runs the risk of his life, if the patient dies under his care. There is, indeed, something to praise and much to blame in Chinese justice. Honours are open to the meanest of the people, but property is insecure; and a rich man is obliged to be unostentatious of his wealth. One of the articles of impeachment against the minister of the late Emperor was, that he had in his possession a pearl greater than any one belonging to Kien-Long.—They pretend to have a liberty of the press; that is, a man may publish what he pleases: but the printer, the publisher, and even the gentle reader, are liable to be flogged with the Bamboo.—Chinese punishments are, bambooing, strangling, beheading, and exile. Torture is used; and confined criminals, instead of being employed in public works, are strangled at a Gaol Delivery.

Mr. B. relates a singular punishment inflicted on officers of state, mentioned by two Mohammedan travellers in the ninth century: as a final and complete degradation, the offender was made to superintend and prepare the tomb of the living Emperor. This remarkable fact establishes, in a great degree, the authenticity of the relations of the Mohammedan travellers.

The military establishment of China is very large: but the soldiers are not suffered to be idle: they convey mails and dispatches, and discharge the duties of revenue officers.

Of nothing have we heard more than of the curious care with which every inch of Chinese earth is cultivated: but it appears from the present work that we have been deceived by partial representations. Mr. Barrow states that vast tracts of

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rich land are uncultivated; and that, though some sides of hills are made productive by means of terraces, the practice is rarely observed. A Chinese peasant manages, with skill, a plot of ground of the size of a bowling green; and he can farm an acre better than an Englishman, but not an hundred acres. In the first statement it may appear rather paradoxical, but Mr. B. says that the lands of China, properly cultivated, might be made capable of maintaining double their present population. We hope that the lands will remain as they are: for to what good end can creatures, so feeble in body and in mind as the Chinese appear, be called into existence?

With regard to the origin of the Chinese, Mr. B. does not coincide in the opinion of M. Guignes, that they were colonized from Egypt: he thinks that they and the Tartars have a common source; and that, after the deluge, China was peopled from Tartary.

In China exists a tribe of Jews, the antiquity of whose settlement dates from a period 300 years before Christ; and the author is of opinion that they accompanied the Expedition of Alexander into India. They have no knowlege of Christ, but possess a Pentateuch, which it were desirable that our Bible commentators should have the power of inspecting.

This chapter also contains an account of the disputes between the Franciscans and Dominicans, and a sketch of the moral and religious doctrine of Confucius. The Missionaries were extremely exasperated at seeing the Chinese Priests *ape* the long gowns of the Catholic Priests, and count their beads. In speaking of religion, and of what belongs to it, the author expresses himself without reserve:

'The priests, who in all ages and in most nations, have been crafty enough to turn to their own account the credulity and superstitions of the people, having once established as a religious duty the offering of sweet-smelling herbs and other perfumes, found little difficulty in persuading the multitude, that the tutelar spirits could eat as well as smell, and that sacrifices and meat-offerings would be acceptable to the gods. The priests of China lost no time in introducing sacrifices, even of living creatures, and offerings of corn and rice and wine and precious metals upon their altars, not however to that extent which was practised in the temples of Greece and Rome, whose gods were the most mercenary of all nations, being rarely induced to grant a favour without a fee. Nor in modern days have the monks and priests of the Catholic faith been backward in this respect, particularly in sanctioning the doctrine of *composition for sins*, for the absolution of which the rate was not even fixed in proportion to the magnitude; and what is still more astonishing, this impious practice of bargaining with the Almighty has survived the dark ages, and exists to a certain degree at this moment.

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'The moral and religious opinions of Confucius were in fact too sublime and too metaphysical to preserve their purity among a people so unprepared, as his countrymen were, to receive and cherish them. The attention of the multitude would seem, indeed, in all nations to require being fixed on something gross and material. How difficult was it for the priest and the leader of the Jews, to restrain their people from practices of idolatry. In the short absence even of Moses on Mount Sinai, they made for themselves a molten calf of gold as an object of divine worship, in imitation, probably, of what they had beheld in the temples of Egypt. The invisible god made little impression on their gross and untutored understandings. Nor was Numa more successful than Moses or Confucius, in his attempt to establish among the people the worship of an ideal or mental object of adoration. Thus also it happened with the Chinese. The sublime conceptions of their great philosopher, too refined indeed for untutored human nature, they could not comprehend. They required some visible object on which they might fix their attention. It was not enough merely to imagine that the spirits of men, who had done their duty in this life, were permitted to haunt the places where their bodies were interred, or where their surviving friends should assemble to do them honour: it was necessary to give them a form and substance. In the same manner was the purity of the Christian religion contaminated by the multitude of images that were invented in the monkish ages, when every city, town, and church, and even individuals, provided they could pay for them, had their particular patron, or tutelar saint.'

Mr. B.'s final chapter is occupied with an account of the journey to Canton. It contains not much that is very remarkable: but it contradicts, we think, in spirit, what Mr. B. elsewhere advances against the Chinese. Sure we are that the ensuing passage bears favourable testimony to their good feelings:

'It is but doing justice to the Chinese government and to the individuals in its employ who had any concern in the affairs of the embassy, to observe, that as far as regarded ourselves, their conduct was uniformly marked by liberality, attention, and an earnest desire to please. Nor is there any vanity in saying that, after observing us closely in the course of a long journey and daily intercourse, the officers of government gradually dismissed the prejudices imbibed against us, as foreigners, from their earliest youth. Gained by our frank and open manners, and by little attentions, they seemed to fly with pleasure to our society as a relief from the tedious formalities they were obliged to assume in their official capacity. *Van* and *Chou* constantly passed the evenings in some of our yachts. It is impossible to speak of those two worthy men in terms equal to their desert. Kind, condescending, unremitting in their attentions, they never betrayed one moment of ill-humour from the time we entered China till they took their final leave at Canton. These two men were capable of real attachments. They insisted on accompanying the Em-

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bassador on board the Lion, where they took their last farewell. At parting they burst into tears and shewed the strongest marks of sensibility and concern. Their feelings quite overcame them, and they left the Lion sorrowful and dejected. Early the following morning they sent on board twenty baskets of fruit and vegetables, as a farewell token of their remembrance. We had the satisfaction to hear, that immediately on their arrival at Pekin they both were promoted. *Chou* is at present in a high situation at court, but *Van*, the cheerful good-humoured *Van*, has paid the debt of nature, having fallen honourably in the service of his country. On the conduct of *Lee*, our Chinese interpreter, any praise that I could bestow would be far inadequate to his merit. Fully sensible of his perilous situation, he never at any one time shrunk from his duty. At Macao he took an affectionate leave of his English friends, with whom, though placed in one of the remotest provinces of the empire, he still contrives to correspond. The Embassador, Lord Macartney, has had several letters from him; the last of which is of so late a date as March 1802; so that his sensibility has not been diminished either by time or distance.'

That the present publication will be amusing and instructive to the generality of readers, even to those who have perused the volumes of Sir G. Staunton, we have little occasion to doubt: for the author has disposed, arranged, and embellished his materials with great skill. "The work exceeds the matter:" for the scheme of writing the moral, political, and scientific history of China, from information squeezed out of men who were unwilling and scarcely competent to communicate, during a *parole* residence of forty days, at first view seemed like the idea of writing the natural history of the whale from a short voyage to the north seas. That the plan of Mr. B. is too extensive for his means, we have already stated our opinion; and in consequence of his writing with too great an eagerness to finish and systematize, it is probable that many of his relations and judgments may receive alteration and correction from future accounts. His Travels in China may be read with pleasure and instruction, if read with caution; they are the production of a shrewd and intelligent mind, slightly tinged with the prejudices of country and education; and, in what regards the authenticity of facts, not sufficiently inquisitive and suspicious. If Mr. Barrow has formed too large and expensive a book, he has fallen into the vice of the age: but the merit of having composed an useful one, with a slight deduction for the singular good fortune of his situation, belongs to his own exertions and talents.

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ART. II. *Dr.* Beddoes's *Hygëia; or Essays Moral and Medical.*

[*Article concluded from p.* 235.]

DESCENDING from subjects of a more general nature, to such as are more strictly professional, in the 6th essay we enter on the consideration of Scrofula. Scarcely any disease conveys to the mind a more unpleasant impression; not so much, we apprehend, from the pain or inconvenience attending its attacks, as from the idea that the art of medicine is not only incapable of curing it, but often fails even in alleviating its violence. This failure is so generally acknowleged, that we were not a little surprized to find the present author maintaining a directly opposite opinion. 'There are few diseases, (says he,) in which the triumph of art has been rendered more compleat. In its worst form, scrofula is to be removed by means, from which not the smallest collateral injury results. In general, its entire eradication from the habit is attended with little difficulty.' The public would indeed have ample scope for rejoicing, could these expectations be realized.

Dr. Beddoes has exercised in this essay, with more than usual effect, his talent at seizing the characteristic features of a disease, and conveying to the mind of the reader, as far as a mere description is capable of attaining this end, a complete picture of the morbid appearances. He is peculiarly happy in his delineation of the scrofulous constitution; and he justly remarks that much of that languid delicacy of frame, which enters so largely into the descriptions of female beauty, as drawn by our poets and novelists, must, to the medical eye, exhibit the latent seeds of this most disgusting and loathsome disease. Its attacks are generally noted in what has been called the sanguine temperament: but the author observes that persons of a directly opposite constitution sometimes become its victims; in which case the symptoms are so far modified by the prevailing habit of body, as to exhibit a very different series of features. This he proposes to call the phlegmatic scrofula; while, to the more common form, he applies the title of sanguineous scrofula. One of the most characteristic symptoms of the former species is an enlargement and hardness of the abdomen, a circumstance that has often caused the complaints to be mistaken for worms: which erroneous idea has given occasion to the exhibition of some of those nostrums which are announced to the public "under the sanction of reverend and titled names," and has thus proved a fertile source of mischief. This peculiar form of the disease seems to be intimately connected with 'the scrofulous atrophy of the poor;' in which an

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enlargement of the mesenteric glands is apparently produced by a defect either in the quantity or the quality of the diet.

Dr. Beddoes reviews in succession the various morbid affections which are supposed to have a scrofulous origin, and among others he enumerates chilblains. As a reason for this innovation, he informs us 'that those who have chilblains when young are, after their disappearance, destroyed by some complaint of the scrofulous class,' supposing that the morbid cause had migrated from the feet to some nobler organ. We are not, however, disposed to acquiesce in this speculation; since neither the seat of the complaint nor its symptoms appear to possess the characteristics of scrofula. Among 'the graver scrofulous complaints,' we meet with the *spina ventosa*; which, overlooking its obvious meaning, (the windy or puffed spine,) the author translates the windy thorn; conjecturing that its name is derived from the pain being 'such as would arise from a thorn lodged in the diseased part.' He is inclined to ascribe hydrocephalus to a scrofulous origin; and he concludes the dreadful list with white swelling and lumbar abscess. He briefly notices the 'causes favouring or producing scrofula,' which seem to be all those that can be supposed capable of impairing the constitution, not of the individuals only, but of their progeny.

Among the 'hints towards bringing up children not to be scrofulous,' we find much stress laid on the employment of a sufficiently nutritious diet; and in particular, the substitution of animal for vegetable food, in those who exhibit marks of extraordinary debility. We agree with Dr. Beddoes that a false hypothesis has, in this case, been productive of fatal consequences. 'People have at last suffered themselves to be persuaded to indulge weakly children with animal food, and its various preparations. But the dread of rendering the blood sharp, or of generating foul, acrimonious humours, still occasions some lots of children to do penance upon vegetable fare.' The practice of frequently giving purgatives to children is perhaps equally injurious with the former, and was deduced from the same erroneous principles.—The effects of cold, and the depressing passions, are noticed at some length as exciting causes of scrofula; and it is obvious that they must all operate with more violence on those who inherit a disposition to this disease. Dr. Beddoes, however, conceives that these different causes may generate scrofula in those who do not possess any hereditary tendency to it.

Towards the conclusion of this essay, we meet with some judicious strictures on the treatment usually adopted, particularly on the use of sea-water, in which Dr. Beddoes appears to place little or no confidence. We were, however, much dis-

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pointed, after the magnificent promises in the commencement, to find the directions for the cure of the disease peculiarly scanty. Indeed the principal information on this head is a reference to the Pneumatic Institution at Bristol; where, we are told, 'in a great proportion of instances the disease is removed, even under the disadvantage of too sparing and meagre a diet.'

The 7th essay treats on *Consumption*. The ravages committed by this complaint have been of late displayed to the public eye in the most alarming colours; yet the picture is not overcharged, and there is even reason to suspect that the evil is daily increasing: for, as the present author remarks, 'the disease is perpetually invading new families, while it is never found to cease in the old ones, unless by rendering them extinct.' The same inference is also deducible from the work of Dr. Heberden, on the Increase and Decline of Diseases; since he found, by taking the average of periods of 10 years in the beginning, middle, and end of the last century, that the number of deaths from consumption increased in a regular and rapid progression.

In treating of the 'phthisical disorganization of the lungs,' Dr. Beddoes particularly inquires into the nature and origin of tubercles. He observes that they have sometimes been found on dissection, where their presence was not suspected, in persons who had not previously suffered much from pectoral complaints. There seems no doubt that they may be formed by the introduction of foreign substances into lungs, which had before exhibited no marks of disease. This fact has been well illustrated in the experiments of Dr. Haighton; who injected quicksilver into the veins of a dog, and the metal being by these means distributed through every part of the circulating system, some globules were carried to the lungs. After some time, the dog grew feverish, a cough supervened, and on dissection the lungs were found filled with tubercles, in the centre of each of which a small particle of the metal was detected.

'The relation of scrofula to consumption,' Dr. Beddoes conceives to be less intimate than is generally imagined. Though scrofulous constitutions are acknowleged to be more liable to become consumptive, yet he is decidedly of opinion that phthisis occurs in persons who have never exhibited any scrofulous symptoms, and in whom there is no reason to suspect the existence of the disease. The presence of tubercles has itself been not unfrequently considered as a sufficient evidence of the connexion between these diseases, on the idea that these bodies were in fact enlarged lymphatic glands: but Dr. B. controverts this opinion, and conceives that they are

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bodies of entire new formation, and that they are precisely similar, whether produced by extraneous bodies accidentally lodged in the lungs, or when formed in those persons who exhibit unequivocal marks of a scrofulous constitution. From this view of the subject, he deduces these important 'rules of caution:'—"*No person can flatter himself with being entirely exempt from consumption. No one should therefore wantonly expose himself to the exciting causes. The most perfect freedom from the scrofulous taint is a very small ground for confidence, where there is any other reason for apprehension. But the scrofulous ought to be particularly on their guard.*"

As this fatal complaint can be combated, with any prospect of success, only in its earlier stages, it becomes a matter of moment to point out both the circumstances which indicate a constitutional tendency to it, and the symptoms which mark the first traces of its approach. This the author has executed with considerable ability; and he has illustrated, with his usual force of language, the folly of trusting to trifling remedies, instead of immediately adopting the most vigorous plan of cure. The following 'Maxims, to hang up in the heart of every father of a family,' afford a characteristic specimen of Dr. B.'s manner:

'1. If either side have been consumptive, use the earliest precautions, and do not relax, under peril of attending your daughter in her shroud, instead of her wedding garments.

'2. Should she escape, see if she owe not her preservation to some other standing disorder.

'3. Your son's chance will be better, by how much he is more robust, and the less he is exposed to hardships without the most gradual seasoning.

'4. Though consumption have not been on either side, the chance, without an anti-phthisical regimen, is still bad. Two or three colds upon colds in winter, or a cutting blast in spring will do the business; and in the mean time, there shall be wretched health almost to a certainty.

'5. Set not your heart upon accomplishments, elegant or literary. Book-learning should be the least concern of the delicately constituted. Living instruction turns out its pupils not only stouter but abler.

'6. When a son or daughter droops between 14 and 34, suspect that a secret enemy is sapping the lungs.

'7. When those, who *must* be ignorant of the essential difference between a common cold and consumption, boast of their cures, hear but heed them not. Ask this question of your common sense—*what experience can instruct such pretenders?*

'8. A little cough may be the sign of a great disease. Beware then how you play the doctor's part. Would you consent to be turned blindfold into an apothecary's shop, and give your child the first drug you may lay your hands on?

'9. It

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'9. It is wise to check a bad cold the first week; but much wiser the first four and twenty hours.

'10. After the small pox, hooping-cough, scarlet-fever, and measles, watch your young convalescent close. If he bark but once, fear lest there be a murderer within.

'11. Though dislodged, expect him again; he now knows the way.

'12. You think perhaps a single course of medicine *ought* to be effectual, and that once cured is cured for good. But nature, be assured, will not be regulated by your fantasies; you have probably been acting in defiance of her for years, and then you may think yourself happy to compound with her on her own terms.

'13. The less consumptive any one is rendered in the rearing, the greater chance of recovery if he becomes so.

'14. When consumption is hanging about a girl, the distance between the marriage bed and the grave is usually short with her. The husband, if he do not become a widower soon after the birth of the first child, may reckon upon a perpetually ailing wife.'

When we reflect that Dr. Beddoes has already given to the world more than one *infallible remedy* for consumption, we are disappointed at not meeting with some observations on the subject. Nothing is said concerning the effect either of the gazes or of cow-houses; and although digitalis is recommended for the removal of catarrh, we have no account of its efficacy in the cure of consumption.

The former essays were more particularly directed towards confirming the constitution in the earlier stages of life; the author now endeavours to point out the means of *preserving* the physical powers; and for this purpose he enters on the consideration of food and digestion. He commences by giving an account of the powers by which the stomach is enabled to act on its contents, and to convert them into a substance proper for the nutrition of the body. He is led to notice the experiments that have been performed on the subject of digestion; and he particularly records the history of two singular cases, one occurring in Dublin, and the other at Vienna, in which there was an external opening directly into the stomach, and through which substances could be introduced and extracted without inconvenience; an opportunity being thus afforded of making observations on the powers of this organ, and on the effect of different substances in promoting or retarding its operations.

An inquiry into the 'principal means by which digestion is impaired, and the digestive organs injured,' necessarily forms a prominent part of this essay; and this topic naturally introduces an examination of the effect of vinous and spirituous liquors. To prove their injurious operation, Dr. B. inserts an account of a comparative experiment on two dogs, in which he

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found the solvent power of the stomach to be materially retarded by the introduction of alcohol. The same result was also obtained by Mr. Pilger, a German physiologist, who prosecuted this subject with much assiduity;—his trials were performed on horses. The experiments are certainly interesting, but not altogether decisive; the digestive powers of different animals, though they bear a strong analogy to each other, exhibit many marks of distinction; and the stomach of the horse, in particular, is known to be very differently affected from the human stomach. We have, however, no need to recur to experiments of this kind, in order to demonstrate the pernicious effects of alcohol on the digestive powers.

The long catalogue of stomach complaints, which are produced by the excessive use of wine, are set forth in detail. Beginning with that 'undefined indisposition,' which attacks the young debauchee, the Doctor proceeds to confirmed indigestion, with all its train of concomitant evils, and closes with that deplorable condition in which indigestion is combined with hypochondriasis.

We regret that our other duties will not permit us to follow the author with more minuteness through the successive parts of his subject. He displays his usual energy of language, and vividness of description; many impressive illustrations are introduced, and much judicious advice is conveyed: but on the whole, his opinions appear to us to be frequently exaggerated, and we were again disappointed with the practical part of the essay, in which he gives a view of the 'preventive regimen.' The essay concludes with some remarks on liver complaints, and on gout.

The length to which we have been induced to protract this article will oblige us to exercise brevity in the examination of the three remaining essays. The 9th relates to nervous diseases. Dr. B. notices the vague manner in which this term has been employed, not only by the vulgar, but by the professed nosologist; and he proposes to restrict it to those 'disorders, in which the limbs move irregularly or without the direction of the will, in which the organs of perception suffer, and the intellectual functions are disturbed; and this, in most instances, without any preceding or concomitant symptoms of a different nature, either general or partial.'

A large portion of this essay is devoted to the consideration of epilepsy; and the author has bestowed unusual assiduity in marking the symptoms which precede the fully formed disease, and in delineating, in a striking manner, the appearances exhibited during the presence of the paroxysm.—We think that the Doctor is less fortunate in his attempt to explain the nature and

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and origin of the disease. As far as we are able to comprehend his meaning, he appears to attribute it to a disunion of the accustomed associations, mental and corporeal, by which the different animal processes are carried on; and proceeding on this ground, he establishes his plan of prevention on the principle of adopting every possible method of renewing and strengthening these associations. Among the means of prevention, he strongly insists on the importance of procuring sleep, and he enters very minutely into the different means by which it may be accomplished. We have next an account of the singular affection of somnambulism, which Dr. B. appears to regard as a species of imperfect epilepsy; and afterward the long train of 'separate nervous symptoms' are considered, as convulsions, spasms, giddiness, tremors, &c.

The 10th essay, on insanity, though not without the characteristic marks of Dr. Beddoes's genius, we are inclined to consider as less original and valuable than several of those that precede it. After having described the more obvious appearances of the disease, he proceeds to point out what class of men are more particularly liable to it; the validity of the distinction between mania and melancholia is examined, and concluded to be scarcely cognizable in actual practice. All writers on this disease have found the difficulty of giving a definition of it. Dr. B. seems to consider the most characteristic circumstance to be, that 'the ideas are verified, and that they are exalted to the force of impressions.' A considerable part of the remarks in this essay is confessedly taken from Haslam and Pinel.

The 11th and last essay contains 'remarks on miscellaneous topics of prophylactic medicine.' The most interesting part of this essay is that which treats of contagion. The important position, 'that the power of contagion to infect extends but a little way from the patient, in whom it is generated, when he is confined where the air has free entrance and egress,' is supported by a reference to the writings of the most celebrated modern physicians; and particularly, by several quotations from an unpublished work of Dr. Clarke of Newcastle. We have afterward an account of the interesting discovery of Morveau, on the destruction of contagion by the mineral acids, and the subsequent employment of the same agents by Dr. Smyth.

From the analysis which we have given of this work, we conceive that our readers will be able to form a tolerably accurate idea of its merits and defects. Considering it as an attempt to instruct the unprofessional in the science of medicine, we think that it fails in its object. We have already pointed

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out our objections to popular medicine in the abstract; and, besides these, the present publication labours under other defects. Instead of precision and simplicity of language, a methodical arrangement of facts, and a perspicuous statement of uncontroverted principles, we meet with a highly figurative style, abounding in hyberboles, metaphors, and allusions. Method appears to be discarded, and hypothesis is unsparingly introduced. A great part of the work would probably not be understood, and much of it very liable to be misapplied, by a reader who was not previously well initiated in the knowlege of medicine. To the man of professional science, however, it will have its value; and though he must expect to be frequently fatigued with the superabundance of extraneous matter, he will find it worthy of his attentive perusal. The delineations of disease are peculiarly characteristic; the views of the animal œconomy are extensive and original; and new ideas respecting the nature and relations of diseases are started, which, though not always correct, are generally ingenious: while many prevailing errors, both in theory and practice, are exposed and ridiculed in the most forcible and impressive manner. We think that the 1st, 2d, and 4th essays are the most exceptionable, and the 5th, 6th, and 9th, the most valuable.

ART. III. *Florâ Britannica, auctore* Jacobo Edvardo Smith, *M.D. Societatis Linneanæ Præside*, &c. &c. Vol. III. 8vo. 10s. 6d. Boards. White. 1804.

THE botanist, who is aware of the extent and importance of Dr. Smith's undertaking, will not murmur at the tardiness of his progress. The cryptogamic families of plants, in particular, have long been involved in confusion and obscurity, and have powerfully solicited the patient scrutiny and minute elucidation of the nicest observers. It must be admitted that the present continuation of the British Flora, which comprehends the classes *Gynandria*, *Monœcia*, *Diœcia*, and *Cryptogamia* to the order *Musci* inclusive, is a substantial proof of the author's unwearied diligence and acuteness of research.

In pursuance of the plan which we adopted in regard to the two preceding volumes *, we could wish to indicate every alteration and addition contained in this farther stage of the publication, confining ourselves chiefly to the arrangement of British Plants, by the late Dr. Withering, as a standard of comparison. As a complete enumeration, however, of the multi-

* See the 36th Vol. of our N. S. p. 52.

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plied improvements which Dr. Smith has introduced, even into a portion of the Cryptogamic class, would be tedious to many of our readers, we shall feel ourselves necessitated to curtail and generalize our expressions of them.

Page 926. *Orchis coriophora* and *O. abortiva* are purposely omitted, because *O. barbata minor* of Ray, which Hudson referred to the former, is, in so far as the learned author can conjecture from a doubtful character, a variety of *Satyrium hircinum;* and Ray's *Limodorum Austriacum*, reported in the Synopsis, and supposed to correspond to *Orchis abortiva*, is Dr. Smith's *Orobanche cærulea.*

927. *Satyrium hircinum* β is introduced as the synonym of Ray's *Orchis barbata fœtida minor, flore albo*, without comment.—929. *S. albidum* β is, in like manner, quoted as corresponding to *Orchis palmata, thyrso specioso longo*, &c. of Dillenius. It has been observed by Dr. Richardson, not only in Wales, but about Malham, in Yorkshire. Dr. Smith, however, is willing to allow that it seems to differ only in size.

943. The specific name of *palustris* is borrowed from Scopoli, and others, as more appropriate to *Serapias longifolia* Lin. *Longifolia* is, in fact, quite inapplicable.

960. *Typha minor* is introduced on the authority of Dillenius, who mentions that it was found by Mr. Dandridge, on Hounslow Heath. Dr. Smith, who gathered this plant near Geneva, has no doubt of its being a distinct species.

964—1009. *Carex capitata* is discarded from the British Flora, and Ray's *Gramen cyperoides minus, ranunculi capitulo longiore*, is referred to variety β of *C. dioica.* The *Davalliana*, which is now confidently inserted, was discovered in marshy ground in Mearnshire, by the late Professor Beattie jun. of Aberdeen, and near Bath by Mr. Groult. The other additional species are *pulla, fulva, binervis, tomentosa* (not that of Lightfoot and Hudson), *Micheliana*, and *lævigata.*

1023. *Arum* is removed to the class *Monœcia*, because the flowers have not the true gynandrous character, and resemble the monœcious plants in regard to the position of the stamens and pistils.

1026. *Quercus robur* of the Species Plantarum, Hudson, Sibthorpe, and others, is here made to correspond to *Q. fœmina* of Withering, and *Q. sessiliflora* of Salisbury's Prodromus, to *Q. robur* of Withering, Hull, Abbot, &c.

1039—1072. Dr. Smith has enumerated and described forty-five species of *Salix*, without professing to have completely adjusted the classification of British willows. A few botanical facts will convince us of the extent and importance of his labours in this very difficult department of his subject. Of the

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the thirty-one species originally known to Linné, Hudson, in his first edition, distinguished seventeen as indigenous to this island. Withering augmented the catalogue to twenty-two: but nothing like an adequate revision of the genus had been attempted, till the present work made its appearance. The descriptions are, in a great measure, newly cast; and although some of them have been taken from imperfect and mutilated fragments of the prototype, many accurate distinctions have been laid down, and much confusion is removed. A monographer of this intricate genus may now repose on the President of the Linnéan Society as on a sure and steady guide.

From several of the newly inserted species, we select the *Lambertiana* and *Russeliana:*

'3. Lambertiana. SALIX *monandra erecta, foliis obovato lanceolatis acutis serratis glabris, stigmatibus brevissimis ovatis emarginatis.*

'*Angl.* Boyton Willow.

In salicetis et palustribus.

On the banks of the river Willy at Boyton, Wiltshire, for 16 miles; also in osier holts, near Stains. *Mr. Lambert.* About Lackford bridge, near Icklingham, Suffolk. *Mr. Crowe.*

'Arbor. *Fl. Martio, Aprili.*

'*Magnitudo et forma præcedentis* [*helicis.*] *Folia subopposita vel alterna, breviora quam in præcedente,* (*vix sesquiuncialia,*) *breviùsque petiolata, obovato-lanceolata, acuminata, apicem versùs serrata, glabra, subtùs glaucescentia. Stipulæ nullæ. Amenta minora quam in S. Helice, squamis orbiculatis, nigris. Germen sessile, ovato-ellipticum, crassum, sericeum. Stylus brevissimus. Stigmata parva, ovata, patentia, sulcata, emarginata.*'

'9. Russelliana. SALIX *triandra? foliis lanceolatis acuminatis serratis glabris, germinibus pedicellatis subulatis lævibus.*

'*Angl.* Bedford Willow. Leicestershire, or Dishley Willow.

'*In palustribus et salicetis.*

Communicated by his Grace John Duke of Bedford, who, with his late illustrious brother, has paid much attention to the cultivation and uses of this hitherto non-descript species.

'Arbor. *Fl. Aprili, Maio.*

'*Arbor excelsa, vegetissima, sub salice fragili adhuc, ni fallor, confusa. Rami nitidi, tenacissimi, et valdè flexiles. Folia lanceolata, elongata, acuminata, glabra, nitida, undique serrata, subtùs glaucescentia. Stipulæ exiguæ, semicordatæ, dentatæ. Amenta mascula nondum vidi; fœminea laxa, rachi tomentosâ, squamis linearibus, pilosis, deciduis. Nectarium obtusissimum, apice croceum. Germen breviùs pedicellatum, ovato-subulatum, læve. Stylus parum elongatus, crassus. Stigmata bipartita.*

'*Cortex ad rem coriariam omnium præstantissimus.* D. Biggin.'

S. phylicifolia is mentioned as having been found at Finlarig in Breadalbane. It is that of the *Species Plantarum,* and consequently

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sequently differs from that of Jacquin. The *primifolia* and *venulosa* occur on the highland mountains of Scotland; and in the same situation are found the *carinata* and *myrtilloides*. The *argentea* of Dr. Smith, and *fusca* of Withering, has either been omitted by Linné, or confounded by him with the *fusca*. It, however, differs from that plant by its rounder and very entire leaves, by its more sleek and silky appearance, &c. The *cleifolia* and *cotinifolia* are quoted from Dickson; to whom, as well as to Mr. Crowe, the Doctor frequently acknowleges his obligations. *Salix stipularis* of the English Botany was discovered by Mr. Crowe, near Bury. This species differs from the *acuminata* in the largeness and form of the stipulæ,—in its leaves, which are more narrow, and twice as long,—and in its linear nectarium and stigmata. In habit, it approaches to the *viminalis* and *mollissima*: but it is much less adapted to œconomical purposes.—The *mollissima* has likewise been observed near Bury by Mr. Crowe. It affords abundance of excellent twigs.

Instead of the Linnéan subdivisions of this genus, (which, as our botanical readers well know, are taken from the margin and surface of the leaves,) Dr. Smith hints that more accurate and permanent distinctions might, perhaps, be founded on the sessile or pedicellated germ, the style elongated, very short, or wanting, and on the entire or two-parted stigma.

1089. Agreeably to Dr. Smith's scheme of arrangement, *Atriplex* is the only genus illustrated in the class *Polygamia*. If something be thus gained in accuracy, more, perhaps, is lost in point of convenience; the kindred genus *Chenopodium* being thus removed to an embarassing distance, and a class formally instituted for the accommodation of a single family.

1108. *Lycopodium* has been removed to the section of *Filices*, and placed in its second division, or among those genera which have no capsular ring.

1118. *Aspidium*, a genus instituted by Swartz, includes such of the former polypodies as have an umbilicated involucrum, *Polypodium* being restricted to those which have no involucrum.

1129. *Asplenium Septentrionale* is the *Acrostichum Septentrionale* of the *Species Plantarum*, Withering, &c.

1133 and 1134. *Scolopendrium vulgare*, on the contrary, of the present author, is the *Asplenium Scolopendrium* of former botanists; and *Scolopendrium ceterach* of Dr. Smith is the *Asplenium ceterach* of his predecessors. These changes are not arbitrary, nor capricious, but founded on the distinctions laid down in the generic characters.

1135.

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1135. *Blechnum* had been already adopted by Withering: but Dr. Smith has (we think, with great propriety,) discarded the barbarous appellation of *spicant*, and substituted the intelligible one of *boreale*.

1139, &c. *Cyathea* is applied to a few species, formerly comprehended under *Polypodium*, and which have their fructifications scattered, somewhat round, and sitting on a calyx that is wide-gaping at the top.

1141, &c. *Hymenophyllum*. The characters of this genus are fructifications inserted on the margin of the leaf. Involucra bivalve, gaping outwardly. *H. Tunbridgense* is *Trichomanes Tunbridgense* of Linné, Withering, Hull, Bolton, &c.

In his exposition of the *Musci*, Dr. Smith has been lavish of innovation, borrowing largely from the learned stores of Hedwig, Dickson, Swartz, and other celebrated cryptogamists, and deriving not a little from his own patient and discriminating observation. If, in a few instances, it may be alleged that he has needlessly multiplied distinctions, it must be confessed that on the whole he has contributed more than any synoptical writer, to augment and elucidate one of the most confused and defective divisions of English botany. We can point only to a few of the principal additions.

1158, &c. *Gymnostomum* is adopted from Hedwig, Schreber, Swartz, &c. It comprizes those of the former *Bryums*, which are distinguished by a naked mouth and an entire calyptra seceding from the base. Sixteen species are here particularized. The *æruginosum* is thus described:

'8. GYMNOSTOMUM *caule ramoso cæspitoso, foliis subulatis carinatis integerrimis, capsulâ campanulatâ operculo....*

'*Angl.* Verdigris Beardless-moss.

'*In palustribus alpinis.*

'Gathered in North Wales, by J. W. Griffith, Esq.

'*Perennis. Fl. vere; fruct. fert æstate.*

'*Caules dense cespitosi, ramosi, erecti, foliis persistentibus undique vestiti. Folia imbricata, patentiuscula, exsiccatione incurva, subulata, canaliculata, integerrima, latè viridia et quasi æruginosa, nervo prominente; nequaquam enervia. Pedicelli erecti, capillares, parùm flexuosi. Capsula erecta, ovata, retusa, sive campanulata, fusca, nitida, ore nudâ. Operculum non vidi.*'

1173. *Splachnum rugosum* is quoted from Dickson, who found it on the highland mountains of Scotland.—1177. *S. lingulatum*, found by Dickson and Donn, on the Scottish Alps.

1178. *Andræa* is a genus detached from *Jungermannia*, and characterized by a very short capsule, and a peristomium of four

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four incurvated teeth, cohering at the top. The British species are the *rupestris* and *Alpina.*

1179. *Tetraphis.* An oblong capsule, and a peristomium of four erect and disengaged teeth, discriminate this genus. The only species recited is *pellucida*, the *Mnium pellucidum* of the Species Plantarum, Withering, Hudson, Hull, and Relhan.

1180, &c. *Encalypta*; applied to some of the *Bryums*, of which the peristomium consists of sixteen linear and erect teeth, and the calyptra is bell-shaped and loose.

1183, &c. *Grimmia.* This genus, too, has been formed at the expence of *Bryum.* Its characters are, a peristomium with sixteen teeth expanded at the base: Flowers terminal. Of the twenty-seven species, which the author has discriminated with his usual perspicacity, *Donniana*, *maritima*, and *rivularis*, are non-descripts. The first is a very rare inhabitant of the Scottish hills, and was found on large stones, near a water-fall on a mountain in Angus-shire, eighteen miles north of Forfar, by Mr. G. Donn, whose name it bears. The same zealous botanist discovered the second near Dundee and on the coast of Fife, as Dr. Scott did in Ireland. The third is also mentioned on the authority of these gentlemen, being indigenous both to Scotland and Ireland.

1201, &c. *Dicranum* comprizes several of the former *Bryums* and *Mniums*, which present a peristomium of sixteen inflected, semibifid teeth. Forty-eight species are detailed. The non-descripts are *fuscescens*, *Scottianum*, and *tamarindifolium.* The first is noticed as growing near Edinburgh; the second as a native of Ireland, named from its discoverer, Dr. Scott; and the third as observed very sparingly on the banks of the lake of Forfar, by Mr. G. Donn.

1235, &c. *Trichostomum*, another recent genus, mostly composed of Bryums, is distinguished by a peristomium of thirty-two filiform and somewhat straight teeth, either approaching in pairs, or connected at the base. Of its nineteen British species, the *cirratum* is introduced for the first time. Dr. Buchannan observed it in woods near Stirling, and the Rev. H. Davies in North Wales.

1249, &c. *Tortula* has a peristomium of filiform teeth, spirally and variously convoluted. It comprizes sixteen species, all taken from *Bryum.*

1262, &c. Of the ten genera that have a double peristonium, *Orthotrichum* is the first in order. It has a terminal capsule, an external peristomium of sixteen teeth, an internal of from eight to sixteen filiform teeth, though sometimes wanting, and a furrowed calyptra. The author describes ten species; of which *rivulare*, a recent one, has been observed in Ireland.

1270,

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1270, &c. *Pterogonium* has a single peristomium of sixteen linear erect teeth, and axillary flowers.

1272, &c. *Neckera* is derived from *Necker*, the criptogamous botanist. Its characters are, a capsule proceeding from a lateral perichætium, the external and internal peristomium consist of sixteen teeth each, those of the latter filiform; the calyptra is smooth.

1338. *Funaria* is dicriminated by an obovate capsule, an external peristomium of sixteen oblique teeth, cohering at the top, an internal of sixteen plain teeth, and a quadrangular calyptra. *F. hygrometisca* is *Mnium hygrometiscum* of Withering, &c.

1339, &c. *Bartramia* has a spherical and furrowed capsule; an external peristomium of sixteen subulate teeth; an internal, membranaceous and laciniated.

We cannot close our report of these numerous enlargements and corrections of the British Flora, without in some measure lamenting that they should be couched in the Latin language. It may, however, be alleged, and not unreasonably, that such an improved view of our native plants is worthy of being addressed to the botanists of Europe; some of whom may have a very imperfect acquaintance with the English tongue, and will therefore feel grateful to the author for his accommodation. At the same time, his descriptions are so neat and appropriate, that we hope they will not long be withholden from the mere English reader; especially as many of our fair islanders amuse their leisure with the elegant and seducing study of botany. The mosses, in particular, from the gracefulness of their forms, the liveliness of their verdure, and the facility with which they are preserved, are objects peculiarly suited to the delicacy of female observation, and eminently calculated to excite their admiration of omnipotent wisdom; which is not less conspicuous in the structure of the hyssop, than in that of the cedar of Lebanon, or of the lofty palm-tree. For the first time, the tiny and diminutive plants, which so much abound in our northern latitudes, are presented to the scholar in a method and style of description which will greatly facilitate the knowlege of their history: but why should such a source of rational instruction and entertainment be accessible only to the scholar?—Should Dr. Smith's important avocations preclude an English version of his Flora, by his own hand, we trust that he will at least superintend and revise the execution of such a desirable work.

ART.

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Art IV. *Eversion*, or the Refutation of the present Principles of Mundane Philosophy. Thomas Cormouls, A.M., Editor. 8vo. pp. 150. 7s. Boards. Printed at Wolverhampton, and sold by Longmans and Co., London. 1804.

We perused the title of this book, several of the subsequent pages, and examined the diagrams, without being able to ascertain whether the author was serious, or laboriously bantering. In our progress, however, the continued strain of gravity, and, above all, *certain mathematical errors*, convinced us that the writer was, in sad and absolute earnest, resolutely determined to overthrow the Philosophy of Newton; and that he enjoyed, even during the strife of confutation, the pleasures of a victory. We do not wish unfairly to defend this philosophy: but "*nisi machinis impulsa validioribus*," &c.

The present discussion is thrown into the form of a dialogue; in which the parties are, *Verity* the *victorious*, Dr. *Hasius*, *Secant*, and *Perspect*; all very clever men, but reclaimed by *Verity* from the dangerous errors of the Newtonian Philosophy; and lastly, Mr. James Logarithm, 'the prince of Geometers and the pride of Philosophy,' who is brought on the stage for the same end as the lion in the old opera, viz. for the express purpose of being killed. Indeed, Mr. James Logarithm reminds us of the lion mentioned in the inimitably humorous page of Addison, which was discharged from the Opera-house because he suffered himself to be killed too easily by Signior Nicolini; for a more bloodless and easy victory was surely never won, than *Verity* gains over the good-natured and dull *Logarithm*. It is all over with the Newtonians, if they have no better defender than this 'prince of Geometers and pride of Philosophy'.

Mr. *Verity* has an extremely short way of dealing with the Newtonians. The conference begins at ten o'clock: in half an hour, *Logarithm* feels his faith rudely shaken; in the next half hour, he is scarcely able to face his man, but at every round of argumentation receives a desperate knock-down, or cross-buttock; and before dinner time, he becomes a perfect Anti-Newtonian! It may be said, however, that a man would not take the trouble of writing 150 pages, and incur the expence of handsomely printing them, without some facts, some grounds, on which he could found his *Refutation*. Let us see.

Desaguliers, in the last century, threw some balls from the top of St. Paul's Cathedral; he noticed the time of their falling, and the height from which they fell; and on examining the results, the spaces did not appear to be as the squares of the times: but Philosophers were not alarmed: it is difficult to make the experiment with accuracy; no reliance can be placed on it; and it is

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from the oscillations of pendulums that Galileo's law is to be established. Mr. *Verity*, however, recurs to this old experiment; makes a ball descend from a Church steeple 42 feet high in 2 seconds; and straightways, Mr. James *Logarithm*, convinced and astonished, gives up Galileo's law as false and erroneous.

After this very *satisfactory* refutation, some arrows are shot, and some balls propelled, in order to shew that gravity *does not act* on bodies moved with great velocity; and, in order to prove that attraction does not act at great heights, (as well as for the inferior purposes of converting Mr. *Perspect*, and of *abrogating the laws of Nature*,) a kite, with disastrous augury to the Newtonians, is made to soar.

Some arguments about leaping we do not comprehend. What is accurately to be understood by a man leaping 2 feet and a half from a scale? Other reasonings we apprehend to be wrong: for instance, if the moon falls in the space of one second the 277th part of an Inch, it does not, *according to Newton*, fall in the 100th part of a second $2\frac{7}{100}$ of such parts. Again, p. 95, Mr. Carmouls says, in direct contradiction to a geometer called Euclid, that areas of circles are to each other as their diameters. Moreover, we do not understand the following spirited dialogue:

'VER.—Yes; for supposing the agency of the moon, or sun and moon conjointly, allowed, and the tides to be raised by them—but for simplicity's sake we will stick to the moon; suppose, I say, the moon, according to the general idea, raise the waters on the side of the globe where she is by her attraction, what cause elevates them on the other with only a few minutes difference of coincidence?

'LOG.—Why the centrifugality of the earth, certainly.

'VER.—Pardon this quere, Mr. Logarithm: does the effect of centrifugality, as you are mechanically acquainted with it, accord with that of the moon's attraction?

'LOG.—Let me consider; no, by no means: attraction continues to act for three hours after the presence of the moon on the meridian of the place; but the full effect of centrifugality is exactly concident with the line of its great force, and the line of the greatest centrifugal force is exactly opposite the moon herself; and consequently, when the moon is on a meridian, ninety degrees of eastern longitude for instance, it ought to be high tide in the opposite point, west; but it does not happen for three hours after, consequently we must seek for another cause.'

One part of this work is not without interest: viz. that in which the author gives an interpretation of the words of Newton respecting Cotes; "If Mr. Cotes had lived," said Sir Isaac, "the world would have known something." According to the sense commonly (we believe, universally,) assigned to these words, a very high compliment was paid to the attainments and abilities

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lities of Cotes by his illustrious friend: but let us hear how dexterously Mr. Cormouls has warped the obvious meaning of this sentence:

'But tradition has preserved an account, that Newton was at times very uneasy in mind on account, as he oft expressed himself, of a great error that was prevalent in the world. By some strange fatality, at the latter end of Newton's life, when this idea was most distressing to him, most of his intimates, and those too whose activity in early life had been engaged in the spread and defence of his philosophy, had become propagators of peculiar religious opinions, as Clarke, Whiston, and Firmin; and the rest were disciples and supporters of one or other of these parties and their opinions: and they all complimented themselves that their peculiar tenets had his particular approbation, and conceived that this great error was the general form of the christian definition of the Deity, in a trinity of persons; but this was actually impossible for various reasons, which as it is an interesting subject to me, you must excuse my being a little prolix upon. I will not deny his piety a share in his anxiety; for he must discover even in his life-time, that the automatic fitting up of the universe dispensed with the energy of a mover and a governor, and did not mend natural metaphysics; and if he could have foreseen to what horrid issue they would proceed in time, his distress would have been so great, he could not but have demolished the fatal pillar of their folly by confession; but here human vanity and human affection stepped in: Newton had penetrated the great secrets of nature, had taught man her Arcana, given him a grand, unthought-of stretch of intelligence, the comprehension of the laws of creation; could he sink into the framer of a calculus, would his haughty disciples thank him for making them descend from their proud eminence? No, he would have been loaded with obloquy for his negligence, and his friends and admirers derided for credulity. Here was another source of chagrin, —he not only stood committed with the world for a mistake, not to say a deception, (which would be wrong) but all the wisdom and learning of the kingdom with him. When once the error appeared to Newton, it was natural to suppose half a word's speaking to any of his friends and cotemporary philosophers, would be sufficient to alarm and inform them; but every man's own business is that which is to himself great and important: attraction was Sir Isaac's business, but Clarke, Whiston, and others the divines and philosophers, his friends, were ears deep in controversy, projects, and systems, and the astronomers were busy and satisfied: the world, or the major part, were too well pleased to be dissatisfied, therefore he grieved and hinted to no purpose: or if ever he was more explanatory to any of the above parties, they took care to bring no reflection upon themselves for their past industry in error; therefore, though he added that the error was great, was injurious, and so obvious that the world must soon discover it, which idea perhaps hindered him from being more particular, no one's curiosity pressed for it, or if communicated to any one they retained it secret. But however gentlemen, one of Newton's cotemporaries either discovered it, or as I rather conceive was made depository of the fact by Newton, in order to be discovered after his

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death; for in the neighbourhood of Burbach, in Leicestershire, the tradition is not yet obliterated, that Sir Isaac often said, in the house of Cotes's father I suppose, that young Cotes, who was a prodigy of mathematic knowledge, when he was gone would undeceive the world of a most remarkable error it laboured under; which it should seem however, young Cotes stood engaged to conceal till that time. Cotes died some years before his patron, and it seems Sir Isaac found no other confidant; but from this incident, the purpose and integrity of Newton appears clear, however his intention failed; for it is beyond the invention of man, I think, to divine any other error of moment than the one in question, or any thing else to discover.'

Many passages of this volume are well expressed; and in some we discover traces of just thinking. We feel no outrageous and overboiling indignation at the intention of the author; we only lament, that he should fruitlessly have wasted so much time. If his treatise were meant as a serious refutation, it is imperfect, and very wide of its mark: if as a *jeu d'esprit*, a ludicrous challenge to mathematicians, a sport to excite the sedateness of reason, it is very heavily pleasant, and most unentertainingly humorous. For Newton, we claim no privileges: let his philosophy stand up for itself: but as for such a judge as *Verity*, such jurors as *Hosius*, *Perspect*, and *Secant*, and such an advocate as Mr. *James Logarithm*, we utterly reject them, and beg leave to move for a new trial in a higher court.

ART. V *The Elements of Physiology:* containing an Explanation of the Functions of the Human Body; in which the modern Improvements in Chemistry, Galvanism, and other Sciences, are applied to explain the Actions of the Animal Economy. Translated from the French of A. Richerand, Professor of Anatomy and Physiology, and principal Surgeon of the Hospital of the North in Paris. By Robert Kerrison, Member of the Royal College of Surgeons in London. 8vo pp. 464. 9s. Boards. Murray.

ALTHOUGH an extensive system of Physiology be much wanted, in order to bring together the various important observations of late years on the subject of the animal economy, it does not appear to us that the publication which we are now to notice is well calculated to supply, what should be the principal object of such a work, a correct view of the present state of that department of medical science. The author professes to take for his model the *primæ lineæ* of Haller: but we have not been able to discover that he has successfully imitated the simplicity and precision for which that writer is so much distinguished. He is fond of combining hypothesis and desultory reasoning with his narration of facts, and thus considerably

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siderably diminishes the value of his publication as an elementary treatise; in which it ought to be the continual aim to encourage, in the mind of the student, that attachment to legitimate theory which is so essential to the improvement of science. The work, however, is not destitute of merit; and though it would have been more creditable to the author, as well as more useful to the public, had it exhibited stronger marks of judgment and research, it still contains a valuable detail of many of the most important facts and doctrines in Physiology.

In an introduction of considerable length, M. Richerand enters at large into the consideration of sensibility, contractility, and vital power; the relation of Physiology to other sciences; and the utility of the great sympathetic nerves, which he regards as forming a nervous system very distinct from the system of cerebral nerves, and peculiarly destined to give motion and vitality to the digestive and assimilating functions. The power of contraction he conceives to be by no means confined to such parts as are usually considered to be muscular; and he gives this instance to prove that Haller's experiments, and those of his numerous pupils on this subject, ought not to receive implicit credit:

'I lately (says he) assisted at an operation to extirpate the testicle for hydro-sarcocele, by C. Boyer. The tumour, when laid bare, by a dissection of the tunica vaginalis, was intrusted to my care during the division of the spermatic chord. This sac, filled with water, moved itself in my hand; its oscillatory contractions and the undulations of liquid were visible, and perceived by several assistants present at the operation. This fact, in my opinion, serves to prove, much better than all experiments made on living animals (the result of which experiments ought not to be applied to the animal economy of man with such confidence as is usually given to them), what we ought to think of the pretensions of Haller and his followers on the insensibility and non-irritability of serous membranes and other organs of analogous structure.

'It is not our intention here to speak of porosity, divisibility, elasticity, and other properties that living bodies possess equally with inanimate substances. These properties never exert themselves to their greatest extent, in all their purity, if we may use the term; their result is uniformly altered by the influence of the vital powers: these constantly modify the effects, which seem to have a more immediate dependance, on a physical, mechanical, or chemical cause, or some other similar agent. It is not exactly the same with respect to extensibility really vital, which is evident in certain organs, as the penis and clitoris: these swell and dilate by the afflux of humours when they are irritated; but this effect does not depend on a property peculiar, and distinct from sensibility and contractility. These parts dilate, their substance distends by the exercise of these powers, which would in-

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duce a like effect in every part that consisted of a similar structure.'

M. Richerand's classification of the subjects of his Treatise consists of those which relate to the preservation of the individual, and render it capable of an isolated mode of existence; and those which concern the preservation of the species.

Chap. I. treats of digestion: but here we are surprised to find that the author makes no allusion to the various and important experiments of Spallanzani, and others, on the mode in which this function is exercised. He tells us, in his introduction, that he does not profess to mention every crude speculation in Physiology: but he cannot stand excused for having omitted, in an elementary work, to give a short detail of some of the most interesting experiments which have ever been made in that science. He affords little more than a page to the consideration of the process through which the aliment passes in the stomach; and he is disposed to conceive that it is at once 'chemical, vital, and mechanical,' and, instead of being referable to either 'heat, fermentation, putrefaction, trituration, maceration, or the gastric juice,' is 'the aggregate result of all those causes united.'

We are at a loss to understand in what manner the omentum answers the purpose assigned to it by this author, of facilitating the enlargement of the stomach; and we are ignorant of any experiments which authorize him to entertain 'no doubt, that the saliva agitated with the food by the motion of the jaws absorbs oxygen, and unites a certain quantity of this gas with the food necessary to assist the changes it must undergo.' He regards the spleen as in some measure subordinate to the liver in the secretion of bile; and he says that the blood, by circulating through it, becomes very similar to that of the omentum: which he supposes, by the slowness of its motion, in the long small vessels, acquires an oleaginous nature, and thus becomes more fit for the secretion of bile.—Our readers will not be inclined to consider him as very fastidious in the evidence which he requires on this subject, when he affirms his belief that the blood of the omentum 'even contains oleaginous particles, if the drops,' he adds, 'which he has seen swimming, did not come from the adipose structure of the omentum, which suffers the liquid that fills its cells to flow, when a puncture is made to examine the blood contained in the veins.'

The author speaks too generally of the distinct offices of the *Vena Portarum* and hepatic artery; and he seems to be ignorant of those facts which demonstrate that either vessel can supply the place and perform the duties of the other, with which

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which he ought to have been acquainted. He also erroneously states, in the same chapter, that the enamel of the teeth is susceptible of growth and restoration, after having been worn down by friction.

In the chapter on Absorption, the author gives the following case, as affording demonstrable evidence that the whole of the lymphatics communicate with each other; and that liquors absorbed by these vessels, in one organ, may readily be carried to another, and over the whole body, without passing through the circuitous course of the circulation:

'A young man, for whom I had ordered frictions on the inner surface of the left leg and thigh to resolve a large bubo, was seized with a salivation the third day, although only half a drachm of ointment had been used each night. The salivary glands on the left side only were swelled, the left half of the tongue was covered with aphthæ; the right side of the body remained totally free from mercurial influence—an evident proof that the mercury had been carried along the left side of the body to the mouth, without passing into the circulation, or perhaps, through any conglobate gland; for that in the left groin did not sensibly diminish in size.'

This fact appears to be somewhat irreconcileable with the doctrine which it is designed to support: for, if the lymphatics communicated over the whole body, why should the salivary glands on one side, and one half of the tongue only, have been affected?—The author might adduce this case to prove that there is a double set of absorbents independent of each other; and that a perpendicular plane, dividing the body into a left and right side, would form the part of separation of the respective series of vessels.

M. Richerand enters rather fully into the subject of the circulation of the blood, and the various powers employed in it: but in the next chapter, on respiration and animal temperature, we remark a considerable paucity of information, and find no account of many experiments and opinions of high interest and importance.

The three ensuing chapters relate to secretion, nutrition, and the sensations.—Speaking of the iris, in treating of vision, the author is disposed to consider muscular fibres as unnecessary to its action:

'It is sufficient (says he) to distinguish its vascular, spongy, and nervous texture: the irritation of the retina, sympathetically transmitted to the iris, determines a greater afflux of humours; its structure dilates, the circumference of the pupil is pushed towards the axis of this aperture, which is contracted by the expansion of the membranous texture. When the irritating cause ceases to act, and we retire from light to darkness, the fluids pass into vessels in the vicinity, the

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iris returns on itself, and the pupil enlarges in proportion to the excess of darkness.'

This idea is completely hypothetical; and indeed it by no means follows from the writer's previous observations on sympathy, that a determination of blood is in any way necessary to a sympathetic impression. The instantaneous motion of the iris, on the application of light, is at decided variance with the speculation of the author on this point.

In the chapter on the Sensations, M. Richerand gives the succeeding experiments, to prove that the motions of the brain depend on, and are exclusively concurrent with, the pulsations of the heart and arteries:

'A. I have first repeated the observation of some authors, and, like them, found that the pulsations perceived by placing the finger on the fontanellæ of the cranium of new-born infants, perfectly correspond to those of the heart and arteries.

'B. A patient trepanned for a fracture of the cranium, and effusion under the dura mater, presented me with a brain rising and sinking alternately. The elevation corresponded to the diastole, the depression to the systole of arteries.

'C. Two dogs trepanned offered the same phenomenon with respect to the dilatation and contraction of these vessels.

'D. I carefully removed the arch of the cranium in the body of an adult: the dura mater, detached from its adhesions with the bones it covered, was preserved entire. I afterwards laid bare the trunks of the carotids, and injected water into these vessels. At each stroke of the piston, the brain had a very conspicuous motion of elevation, particularly when the liquid was, at the same instant, propelled into both carotids.

'E. I have injected the internal jugular veins; the mass of brain remained in a state of quiescence: only the veins of the brain and sinuses of the dura mater were dilated. The injection was retained for some time, a little swelling of the brain was perceived; when pushed with greater force, some veins ruptured, and the liquor escaped: the same kind of injection was made with water tinged to a deep red, which colour was very evident on the surface of the brain. To perceive this effect more completely, after having removed the arch of the cranium, we should make an incision on each side of the dura mater, parallel to the circular incision of the bone, and then elevate its edges towards the superior longitudinal sinus.

'F. The internal jugular veins being laid open during the injection of the trunks of the carotid arteries, each stroke of the piston causes the fluid to gush out with great force; a very evident proof of the influence exerted by the motions of the brain on the passage of blood in its veins, and in the sinuses of the dura mater. This experiment has been already made by other anatomists, and among them Ruysch, with intention to prove a direct communication between arteries and veins: this is at present generally admitted and demonstrated by other facts. It will be perceived that the following is no less conclusive:

'G. I have

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'G. I have tied the carotids successively in a trepanned dog; the motions of the brain diminished, but did not entirely cease. The anastomoses of the vertebral, with branches of the carotid arteries, account for this phenomenon.

'H. I took a rabbit, a tame animal easily confined, and very convenient for difficult experiments; after having laid bare the brain, and observed that its motions were exactly correspondent to pulsations of the heart, I made a ligature on the trunk of the ascending aorta: at the instant the blood ceased to be carried towards the head, the brain no longer had any motion, and the animal expired.

'I. The ligature of the internal jugular veins did not occasion a loss of motions of the brain; but its veins are dilated, and its surface, uncovered by removing a portion of the dura mater, appeared redder than in a natural state. The dog fell into a state of coma, and expired in convulsions.

'The opening of these veins did not prevent the motions from continuing; they only became weaker when the animal was debilitated from the hemorrhage.

'K. An opening of the longitudinal sinus, which is the only one that could be effected, does not weaken the motions of the brain. It is observed that the blood flows out of it more profusely during the elevation.

'L. The compression of the thorax of the human body only produces a slight reflux into the jugular veins, particularly if the trunk be elevated during this compression. The reflux is more easy and evident when the body is placed in an horizontal posture.'

The remainder of this work is occupied with an account of the other functions necessary to the individual, viz. motion, voice, and speech; which is followed by a chapter on Generation, and a concluding one on Age, Temperature, &c.

Concerning the preponderance of the flexor over the extensor muscles, the author displays some ideas peculiar to himself, which are worthy of attention:

'The extensor muscles (says he) are generally weaker than the flexors: thus the most natural situation, that in which all the powers maintain a just equilibrium; that which our members take during sleep, when volition ceases to determine the vital influx to the muscles subject to its influence; that which we preserve the longest time without fatigue, is a middle state between flexion and extension, a true semiflexion.'

'The degree of shortening of which a muscle is susceptible, (he continues) is always in proportion to the length of its fleshy fibres, as the force with which it contracts is in a direct ratio with their number; therefore, if the fibres of the flexors be more numerous than those of the extensors, it follows as a necessary consequence that the member will be kept in a state of flexion, when the principle of motion is equally distributed; and although the number of fibres be equal in the flexors and extensors, the extremities would be still in a bent

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bent position if the fibres of the former were longer, and thus cause them to perform a greater range of action.'

M. Richerand then goes on to compare the flexor with the extensor muscles in both the upper and lower extremities; and he concludes with this summary of his opinion:

'The flexor muscles, therefore, have longer and more numerous fibres than the extensors; their insertion into bones is farther from the centre of their motions, under an angle more open, and which increases in proportion as the limbs are in a state of flexion: it is to these causes united that the flexors are indebted for the superiority they possess; and the disposition of articular surfaces, which are mostly inclined towards the side of flexure, is to be attributed to the great extent of motion effected by these muscles.'

Of the translator's merit, in presenting us with M. Richerand's work in the English language, our quotations will enable the reader to form a judgment.

ART. VI. *Women; their Condition and Influence in Society.* By Jos. Alex. Segur. Translated from the French. 3 Vols. 12mo. 12s. Boards. Longman and Co.

HAVING in our notice of the original entered very fully into the merits of M. Segur's labours *, we beg leave to refer our readers to that article; and we shall content ourselves at present with submitting to their inspection a few extracts, by which they may appreciate the qualities of the translation. The interest which belongs to the investigation, and the value of the work, ought to have stimulated the translator to particular exertions. We do not perceive, however, that this has been in any degree the case; we discover in these pages scarcely a trace of the elegance and neatness which distinguish the style of the French volumes; all the nicer shades of meaning have disappeared; and the version does but barely convey the sense of the original. When the subject is transient, and the performance is of slender merit, we rarely animadvert on the manner in which translations are executed: but when the topics are important, and ably discussed, we feel that we are then required, by a regard to the author's fame and the interests of the British public, to protest against the effects of haste and inadvertence.

The influence of Christianity on the female condition and character is well described by M. Segur:

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* See Rev. Vol. xlii. p. 484. *Appendix.*

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'At length Christianity arose: it came to offer to mankind a safe system of morals, of present and of future happiness; it proposed to them as their glory a reconciliation to the supreme Being, as an end in adopting it, sweet consolations on the earth, and as a reward for persevering in it, an eternal rest in heaven.

'Until that time the women, unsettled in their desires, and subdued even in their thoughts; and unacquainted with any other light than the transient glimmerings of pleasure, waited without hope. Having become Christians, they subdued their passions and their reason; and, warmed by a pure and vivid flame, they elevated themselves to the divine love, and tasted that anticipated happiness which faith inspires in our breasts even in adversity.

'It is on these tender minds, above all others, that the law of Christ ought to exercise all its influence. They were, in fact, the first to embrace these religious doctrines, which, corresponding to all the secret movements of their hearts, to their natural fondness for pity, for love, and for devotion, proposed to them engaging occupations, and enjoyments without remorse. It is difficult to delineate the amazing revolution which this period effected.

'Christianity, severe in its principles, but proffering forgiveness, substituted the reign of the mind for that of the passions. If politics and philosophy altogether related to the interests of society, the new legislation made this world appear as an empty shadow, from which every thing ought to alienate us, and the world to come as the only object which should occupy our thoughts, and direct our hopes. Every thing was purified. Disgrace attached itself to licentiousness. The women, become more modest, lamented the want of chastity, imposed sacrifices upon themselves, and humbled themselves in order to be elevated. Crimes diminished from the necessity, and the obligation they were under of impeaching themselves. Every one was desirous of a restraint, and regarded the limits of his desires and his passions; duties became pleasures; all the wise institutions which had fallen into decay were restored; vows were pronounced; indissoluble bonds were formed; and marriage, which before had been only an union by the simple agreement of the parties, became a sacred tie, solemnized and consecrated at the altar, and protected by the laws. A simple and pure morality offered itself as a support to the unfortunate, and a safeguard to the weak and the innocent.

'Extinguishing hatred, and forbidding revenge, peace appeared to descend to the earth to invite the human race to love and support her; and religion, by uniting together the minds of all mankind, seemed to form one immense chain, which reached even to the throne of the Deity.

'Every thing in this new worship served to render it agreeable to the women. It not only re-established a more equal balance between them and us, but corresponded in some measure to that inclination, always prevailing among them, to bring others into subjection, and to exercise their power. To convert is also a species of seduction; and the Christian women have, on this account, been seen to give themselves up to it with more ardour than the men *.

'* St. Augustine was converted by his mother; and St. Jerome dedicated to women a great part of his works.'

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'England, France, part of Germany, Bavaria, Hungary, Bohemia, Lithuania, Poland, Russia, and, during some time, Persia, received the gospel from the hands of beauty, and thousands of proselytes were the happy fruits of its charms and its grace.

'This sensibility, so natural to women, a sensibility which love converts into a passion, was soon transformed by religion into a mild and consolatory pity. A desire of promoting the happiness of others, and of cheering the unfortunate, imparted to their minds a high degree of warmth and ardour.

'Sacred asylums of misfortune were established, patronized, and overlooked by them. Weakness and commiseration triumphed, from the disgust with which horrid spectacles of distress must have filled them. The sick and the afflicted were taken care of, and their lamentations respected; and the tears which yet trickled down their cheeks were received into sympathising bosoms. We at length beheld the women, those precious ornaments of the earth, becoming the refuge of the unfortunate, and the resources of the indigent. Persecution, likewise, which so severely tried the first Christians, afforded the women an opportunity for unfolding their virtues.

'Religion, calm and efficient, had softened their hearts;—but when they were oppressed, threatened, and proscribed, it animated their courage, and elevated their sentiments; carried away by a holy enthusiasm, the first of them precipitated themselves on the funeral piles that supported the tyranny. Through such holy worship, and persuasive morality, Christianity, even in that which is mysterious and supernatural in it, enflamed yet more this susceptible and tender sex. Those very women who but lately, in the midst of praise and adoration, rivalled the lustre of their charms by the splendour of their dress, now, covered with sackcloth, forgot their attractions, and the feebleness of their sex, braved death, and even courted it; and, in a manner, freed from the objects of the present times, rushed forwards, in a religious delirium, into the abyss of futurity!

'Let us not be astonished at this amazing fortitude. The worship which they defended with so much zeal protected their weakness. A series of new ideas and principles of conduct was established by it; and another constitution of society offered itself to their notice, in which they were able to acquire a rank more respectable than they held before, and totally independent of the men. If they remained in society, a sacred institution bound them to their husbands; if they devoted themselves to the altars, they depended for the future on God alone; and thus, in one word, they passed from slavery into freedom.'

The contrast is striking between Christianity and Mohammedanism, as each religion severally regards the situation of the fair part of the creation. The object and effects of the policy of the great eastern impostor are here correctly stated:

'At nearly the same time as the union of the first chivalric notions with the laws of Christianity presented to the women in Europe the assurance of a total change in their situation, a religion arose in Asia which

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which confirmed for ever the domestic slavery of a sex which, even in oppressing them, the Orientals adore.

'Whilst religious and political revolutions have successively changed the condition, the character, and the manners of women, it is to be remarked that the inhabitants of the East have uniformly remained in the same state. It is in vain that their country has often changed its master; that it has been by turns subject to the arms and the laws of different usurpers: not one of these conquerors has ever thought of bursting the shackles of an unfortunate sex, or of abating in the least the rigour of its bondage.

'If Mahomet did not, like Brahma, command the women to burn themselves on the funeral piles of their husbands; this prophet, whose policy was so profound, did not render them less the eternal victims of his ambition. Wishing to stifle all those passions which he thought sufficiently strong to counterbalance his influence on the mind he felt that though he could restrain men from intoxication, by prohibiting, by his religion, the use of wine, he would in vain attempt to triumph over love; but knowing how he might skilfully oppose pleasure to it, he established the custom of shutting up the women; and shortly after, his laws opening, by a multiplicity of enjoyments, an unbounded field for all the desires, he left to beauty no longer any empire but over the passions; a power destitute of danger, a reign of very uncertain continuance, and the duration of which extends no farther than that of the transports of love.

'The genius of women has not been able to oppose itself to the genius of Mahomet. In those parts of the globe where his religion has prevailed, their condition has remained stationary. In other countries, and even among barbarians, it has been meliorated; their accomplishments and attractions have raised them to a controuling power; but, as I have observed, in Asia alone have they submitted to slavery without hopes of relief; and, in order to discover some faint traces of their character, we can now only cite some secret intrigues, by which they endeavour, in the retirements of the seraglios, to ameliorate their destiny.'

The present is a very valuable treatise; and it discusses points of high importance in a manner that is creditable to the abilities, the judgment, and the moderation of the author. We strongly recommend it to the public in general, but particularly to our fair readers; since it is at once an entertaining, an instructive, and a practical performance.

ART. VII. *A Practical Treatise of Perspective*, on the Principles of Dr. Brook Taylor. By Edward Edwards, Associate and Teacher of Perspective in the Royal Academy. 4to. pp. 316. 1l. 14s. Boards. Leigh and Co.

To persons of moderate means and moderate application, the cost and the number of pages of this volume must appear sufficiently formidable: we regard both the one and the other as

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as extravagant; and we conceive that the price and the precepts of the book might have been curtailed, without loss to the pocket or the reputation of the author.

If, in the literary or scientific world, a work of a particular description be wanted, any apology for introducing such to public notice is unnecessary: the work will introduce itself. Mr. Edwards, however, deems it proper to expose the reasons which have induced him to publish; and, in a few words, they are these. Former treatises on Perspective may be divided into two classes: the first, of treatises adapted only to those students who possess a knowlege of geometry; and which, in their general style and mode of reasoning, are too abstruse and mathematical. In the second class, the author places those books which are deficient, not in familiarity, but in exactness of explanation; laying down easy practical rules, but rules not sanctioned by demonstration, and, in some cases, at variance with the results of investigation.—In the present volume, Mr. E. proposes to avoid both these evils; to explain familiarly, and with exactness; and he is desirous of making his treatise understood even by those who are unacquainted with the Elements of Euclid.

As, however, many technical terms may with great gain of brevity be introduced, and as several constructions (even in the simplest system of Perspective) must indispensably be employed, Mr. E. prefaces his rules with some geometrical definitions, and some methods of construction, such as erecting a perpendicular, &c. Among his definitions, we occasionally notice a little want of exactness.

A student who goes through the great variety of cases given by the author will be able to put any object into perspective, or he must be irretrievably dull: but merely to teach Perspective ought not to be the sole object of a writer on that science: he should endeavour to teach it simply and concisely; and for either success or endeavour, with respect to this latter point, we cannot compliment Mr. Edwards. He has multiplied instances beyond measure and utility; and the student is in danger of being disheartened or bewildered. What are really only curious cases for the exercise of the art, or examples, he may mistake for distinct and separate methods: whereas, in reality, three or four rules are sufficient for the practice of Perspective. If we can put an oblique line into Perspective, cannot we in fact put any figure into Perspective? and cannot any oblique line be put into Perspective, if we can put two lines into Perspective, one lying in a plane parallel to the ground plane, and the other in a verticle plane? It is true that general constructions in practice may not be the most convenient;

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convenient; and that, in particular circumstances, they may receive very useful modifications. After the establishment of the general proposition, by which any line is to be thrown into Perspective, there remains, we acknowlege, considerable scope for ingenuity in skilfully varying and adapting it to the cases that usually occur.

Mr. Edwards has given no demonstrations: an omission which, we think, is to be regretted, since the proper demonstrations could not have occupied much room; and of compression and conciseness the author seems not very ambitious. Instead of the present arrangement, we are of opinion that the several rules should have been placed more closely together: we are now obliged to advance to the middle of the Treatise, before we are instructed how to put a slope line into Perspective.

We have already mentioned a suspicion that the variety and multiplicity of examples, not arranged in the best manner, may bewilder the student: but we may be wrong in this conjecture; and experience only must decide on it. According to our plan,—by no means a fine spun and visionary plan,—the student ought to be instructed in the few rules absolutely requisite, and be sent to apply such rules to the delineation of real objects. After some experience, his own sagacity may suggest some more convenient form for such rules: at least, if any of his modes of construction are operose and intricate, he will inquire after and eagerly embrace those that are more simple.

As we have not strained our complaisance to say civil things of this Treatise, it is just, before we conclude, to let the author speak for himself, and to state his own arrangement and the contents of his book:

'The arrangement is as follows:

'As a preliminary apparatus, a selection of definitions and problems in geometry is given, all of which are absolutely necessary to be understood by those who mean to practise Perspective; they are inserted not to increase the size of the volume, but that the student may not be compelled to seek for other books before he can make use of this.

'After the Geometry follows the Perspective, which is divided into six sections;

'The first is introductory and contains all the terms that are employed in the practice, together with their definitions illustrated by proper examples. the difference between the *center of the picture* and *point of sight* is defined; and the various positions in which objects may be disposed to the picture: it also contains the rudiments of practice for lines parallel and perpendicular to the picture.

'The second section contains instructions with examples for drawing objects the fronts and sides of which are *parallel* and *perpendicular* to the picture.

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'The third section treats of objects, the fronts of which are *inclined* to the picture.

'In the fourth section are examples, with instructions for delineating objects, when the planes or faces of which they are composed are *inclined* both to the picture and to the *horizon.*

'It must be observed, that the aforenamed sections contain all the practical principles necessary for the delineation of objects in Perspective, however their different planes may be disposed to the eye of the spectator.

'The fifth section treats of shadows, in which the author has attempted to explain the leading principles of that part of the science in the clearest manner he was able; but whatever his success may have been, it must not be expected that this part can be clear and easy to those who do not well understand the preceding sections of the work; therefore the student must make himself master of those before he attempts shadows.

'The sixth and last section contains methods for facilitating operations in difficult cases, as also some theoretic instructions, together with observations by way of praxis; all of which will be found extremely useful to the student.

'In the technical language of the science, the terms adopted by Dr. Brook Talyor are united with those employed by the old writers on Perspective, by which means it is expected that the study of the science will be facilitated to those who chuse to refer to the works of that great master and his principal successors.

'In the plates are selected the most useful and familiar examples, such as are most generally wanted in the common course of practice, yet such as will include all the positions in which objects may be placed to the picture or spectator; omitting the inclined picture, for which the student is referred to the senior Malton, Hamilton, &c.

'Most of the examples are drawn to a scale, the use of which is explained in the first section, and applied in most of the following. This circumstance has never before been attended to by writers on the subject; and therefore it may be hoped, that this will operate as an improvement, and greatly facilitate the study of the science in its practical part: but the reader must observe, that the author does not mean to offer any new method of process, founded on any superior theory of the science; he only wishes to teach the readiest mode of practice, directed by the principles of Dr. Brook Taylor, whose writings on Perspective are certainly the *ne plus ultra* of the science, and do infinite honour to his country.

'At the end of the sixth section is added a Discourse on the [illegible] duct and composition of a picture; which, if attended to, will not [illegible] help to explain the principles of Perspective, but also prevent [illegible] error in the future works of those artists who have not opportunity to enter deeply into the science.

'The author cannot conclude this preface without observing, that in the course of the work he certainly would have endeavoured to give more copious instructions concerning the theory of the science, were he not of opinion, that this cannot be done with sufficient effect without personal explanation, and that with an apparatus adapted to the

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the purpose, which is absolutely necessary to those who are not acquainted with Geometry; but to such as have received a mathematical education and comprehend the eleventh book of Euclid, Dr. Brook Taylor's treatises are sufficient for the theory, and such persons will require but little assistance in the practice. If, after studying him as the great theorist of the science, they find any help in the practical part of this work, the author will rejoice in having facilitated the study of a science which is useful to the scholar, ornamental to the gentleman, and indispensably necessary to the artist.'

The book is very handsomely printed, and illustrated by above forty engravings.

ART. VIII *A General History of Mathematics*, from the earliest Times to the Middle of the Eighteenth Century Translated from the French of John Bossut. To which is affixed a Chronological Table of the most eminent Mathematicians. 8vo. pp. 560. 9s. Boards. Johnson.

NOT many years ago, we announced to the world and commented on a history of Mathematics, composed by M. Montucla *; which (we speak of the last edition) consisted of four heavy volumes. Among other remarks, we objected to the great bulk of that treatise: but it is the smallness of the present volume that now excites our discontent. Within a narrow compass, the author endeavours to comprize much more than can properly be included: since 550 octavo pages, not closely printed, are destined to contain the sum of discoveries, inventions, and methods in all parts of pure Mathematics and Physics, that have been either vainly or profitably excogitated, from the time of Eudoxus to the modern days of Maskelyne and La Place.

The translated title-page of the work announces it to belong to John Bossut. We know not precisely whether this be the same Mathematician who has published a complete course of Mathematics, a treatise on Hydrodynamics, memoirs in the Academy of Sciences, on the Equilibrium of Domes, on the Sum of a Series of Sines in Arithmetical Progression, and likewise the Introduction to the Mathematical Part of the last French Encyclopædia †: but if he be *not* the same, we still think that the author of this production possesses very considerable mathematical attain-

* See Appendix to Vol. xl. N. S.

† We possess a Treatise on the Differential and Integral Calculus, to which the author's name prefixed is Charles Bossut; the same, if we mistake not, who announced in one of the volumes of the National Institute a theorem concerning certain algebraical portions of a sphere.

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ments: indeed, one great fault often repeated is, that he does not deign to be sufficiently particular and explicit, but writes as if he were writing to an erudite mathematician. For instance, what knowlege can be conveyed to the Student's mind, when he is informed that Euler reduced all questions concerning the Motion of Fluids, to depend on two differential equations of the second order?

This History, however, is not without its uses, though it is more adapted to the accomplished Mathematician than to the Tyro. To the former, it is convenient as a book of reference, and as a well constructed register, in which inventions are recorded in a concise technical language, chronologically arranged, and often systematically and scientifically disposed. To a young Student, we should rather recommend the two old volumes of Montucla than the present octavo: from the former he ought to gain considerable information, but the latter can only furnish him with names and words, something to talk about, and much to make him a coxcomb.

In the volume before us, we find many things ably and ingeniously stated. The controversy concerning the Invention of Fluxions is well related. English readers will say that M. Bossut is partial towards Leibnitz; and certainly, in our opinion, he gives to Newton a very scanty portion of praise: not on the subject of the Differential Calculus only, but on that of Physical Astronomy. Almost as much is said of the Bernoullis, as of our great Philosopher.—The Bernoullis were undoubtedly men of very extrordinary talents, and M. Bossut loves to talk of them. He ably gives, in few words, the contrasted characters of the two brothers:

'Extent, strength, and profundity characterize the genius of James Bernoulli: in John we find more flexibility, and that turn of mind which applies indifferently to all objects. The former published a greater number of truly original works, which belong exclusively to himself; as the theory of spiral lines, the problem of the elastic curve, that of isoperimeters, which occupies so great a place in the history of geometry, the principle from which was afterward derived the solution of problems in dynamics, the treatise *de Arte Conjectandi*, &c. The latter was fond of uncommon and curious questions in every branch of mathematics: he had a peculiar art of proposing and resolving new problems: whatever object was offered to his investigation, he entered into it with extreme readiness, and never treated any one without placing it in the most perspicuous light, and making some important discovery in it. To conclude, James Bernoulli became what he was of himself, and died at the age of fifty; John was initiated into mathematics by his brother, and lived fourscore years. In this he had immense advantage: for if all the faculties of the human mind be enfeebled by age, this loss is compensated in the mathematical sciences, which are the fruits of study and reasoning, by the mass of knowledge acquired;

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acquired; and by a long practice in geometrical methods, which enables us to discern that which is most proper for the solution of a problem; so that we are often saved many useless attempts, and the powers of the mind are less exhausted. All things considered, I compare James Bernoulli to Newton, John to Leibnitz.'

If we do not mistake, the above parallel is to be found in M. Bossut's Introduction to the Mathematical part of the last edition of the Encyclopædia.

Of the translation, we cannot speak very favourably; it is carelessly performed, infected with French idioms, with some bad English, some bad printing, and some bad spelling.—P. 424, 'and let *as light motion* be impressed on this system, so that each body shall pass through an infinitely small space.' In p. 442, '2dly, that the hydraulic formulæ be not intractable, and lead to results susceptible of convenient application to practice.' At page 17, we meet with this passage; 'and afterward Plato, with other philosophers, committed them to writing, and *corrupted* them from vague and confused tradition.'—Germ is spelt with an e final, *germe*. In page 523, demonstrated is put for, we suppose, demonstration. The translator or printer seems to have had a violent aversion to capitals: the words british, english, french, *newtonian*, &c. are always written with small initial letters.—Is there any good reason for this? custom is against such practice.

The English nation possesses no good mathematical history: a want which is to be regretted, since there is something in the style, sentiment, and *professed* impartiality of the French Historian, that does not exactly please us.

ART. IX. *A Picturesque Representation of the Manners, Customs, and Amusements, of the Russians*, in one hundred Plates; with an accurate Explanation of each Plate, in English and French. By John Augustus Atkinson and James Walker. Vols. II. and III. Imperial Folio. 10l. 10s. Boards. Boydell, Nicol, &c.

IN our forty-fifth volume, N.S. p. 296, we announced the commencement of this superb work, explained the design of the authors, and gave a catalogue of the plates, with two or three specimens of the subjoined explanations. The encouragement which Messrs. A. and W. have received, and by which they have been induced to finish their expensive undertaking, is some proof that the Arts are not altogether destitute of patronage; for we must regard these volumes almost solely as books of prints, or coloured etchings, the letter-press being very inconsiderable. In general, the explanations are too short to be satisfactory; and much blank space remains which mig-

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have been filled with accounts of Russian manners and customs. Sufficient instruction, indeed, is not blended with amusement; and we are usually left to collect too much from the eye.

The two volumes before us contain 67 plates, etched and coloured by Mr. Atkinson, intitled (Vol. II.) Pilgrims—Ukraine Drovers—Zbitenshik (a hawker about the streets selling a beverage, made of hot water, honey, Guinea-pepper and other spices, and used by the common people instead of tea in the cold season)—Children's Ice Hills—Brick and Lime Lighters—Government armed Barks—Russian Soldier—Finland Girl going to Market—Ice Hills—Hussars—Summer Fishery—Finland Wood Barks—Winter Fishing—Ladoga Fishing Boats—Common Sledge Kibitka—A Merchant's Wife—Russ Merchant—Rafts of Timber—Finland Horse—Jumping on a Board—Cozack Officer—Court Caliche—Yaeger, or Huntsman—Skittles—Public Festival—Hay Merchants and Market—Monks—Female Peasant—Baba, or Old Woman—Boutouchniki, or Watchmen—Stone Carriage—Finland Carts—Russian Sailors—Tartar Camp. (Vol. III.) Tartars catching their Horses—Plough—Smolenski, or Polish Carts—Woman's Winter Dress—Russ Baths—Wolf Hunt—Boxing Matches—Cooper—Kalatchnicks (men who hawk about a superior sort of bread)—Race Course—Gardeners—Dvornick (a servant resembling a helper, or man of all work, in England)—Russian Canoe—Village Amusement—Wrestling—The Swing—Fish Barks—Golubetz (a dance among the Russians which is a mimical representation of courtship)—Baptism—Russian Village—Ceremony of Marriage—Burial of the Dead—Metropolitan—Russian Priests—Wood Barks—Russian Farm-yard—Sorting Hemp and Flax—Polish Dance—Finlanders bringing Fish to Market—Consecration of the Waters—The Trotting Horse—Nuns—A noble Tscherkesse on Horseback *.

It is hence evident that these plates will serve to give a view of the customs and manners of the people, which they represent; and they are sketched with great spirit and skill: yet, in order to impart a *full* idea to the ignorant observer, more finished delineations might have been preferable.

As in the article above mentioned, we shall transcribe two or three of the most interesting explanations:

'*Baptism.*—On the eighth day the child is carried to the church to receive its name; the name of the saint that day in the kalendar should, according to the rules of the church, be given to the child, and such,

* We should apologize for this dry enumeration: but how otherwise could we convey an idea of the contents of the volumes?

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for the most part, is the practice; though sometimes, in compliance with the request of families that are desirous of keeping up their name, the priest gives it another. But notwithstanding the name, the church does not therefore teach, that the infant is put under the protection of that particular saint, yet it is the notion of the common people.

'The number of sponsors is not limited, and the Greek church uniformly practises the trine immersion; the reason is to signify the mystery of Christ's three days burial, that whilst the infant is thrice lifted up out of the water, the resurrection on the third day may be expressed thereby. The baptism is followed by the chrism, or sacred unction; and the priest, at the request of the parents, usually hangs a little cross of gold or silver round the infant's neck, which some of the Russians, especially the lower people, hold in great veneration.'—

'*Ceremony of Marriage.*—As soon as the liturgy is ended, the priest, standing within the sanctuary, the couple who are to be married stand before the holy door, the man on the right hand, the woman on the left; their two rings are placed on the right hand side of the holy table, near each other, then the priest signs the couple to be married on the head thrice, gives them lighted tapers, and incenseth them cross-wise. After the benediction prayers, the priest gives one ring to the man, and the other to the woman, and saith to the man: The servant of God is betrothed to the handmaid of God, in the name of the Father, and of the Son, and of the Holy Ghost, now and for ever, even unto ages of ages, amen. And unto the woman: The handmaid of God is betrothed to the servant of God, &c. &c. Having said this to each of them thrice, he signs them on the forehead with the rings, and then puts them on the forefinger of the right hand of each; then follows the second ceremony, which is properly the marriage, and is called the office of matrimonial coronation. This is done in token of the triumph of continence. Formerly these crowns were garlands of flowers; but now they have in all churches crowns of silver, or other metals, kept for that purpose. These crowns are held by some of the assistants over their heads, while the priest takes them by the hand, and turns them about in a circle three times, while he repeats the troparions. The third ceremony is that of dissolving the crowns on the eighth day; after which the bride is conducted to the bridegroom's house, immediately to enter on the care of his family.'—

'*Consecration of the waters.*—On the sixth of January, it is the custom of the Greek church to consecrate the rivers and waters; a temporary chapel, in the form of a temple, is erected over a large opening cut in the ice. In St. Petersburgh, the place is generally chosen on the Neva fronting the Imperial palace, because the Imperial family, whenever the weather permits it, join the procession, which is performed by all the principal clergy; who, with their croziers, holy standards, images, and other sacred insignia, go to this temple, and performing the service prescribed by the Liturgy for this ceremony, dip the images, crosses, &c. into the waters, in order to sanctify them. The several regiments of guards are drawn out on this occasion, with their colours and standards flying.'

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To these delineations of some of the religious ceremonies of the Russians, we shall add the description of one of their ordinary practices, in which it will be seen that Mr. A. coincides with the representations of other writers:

'It is customary with the Russians of all ranks to use the steam bath at least once a week; the lower classes of people, on account of their manner of living, could not preserve any degree of cleanliness without it, especially during the winter, when they are pent up together, like sheep in a fold, upon their ovens; the public baths in the cities are frequented chiefly on Saturdays. In the villages, there are no public baths, every family having their own small baths, constructed at some distance behind their houses, to prevent accidents by fire.

'The public baths in cities are situated upon the banks of rivers, from which they are supplied with water, by means of swing buckets. Each public bath is divided into two partitions, one for the men and boys, the other for the women and girls. The bathing rooms are heated by ovens, the cavities of which are filled with iron balls and stones, on which, when they are heated till they are nearly red hot, water is poured in order to fill the bathing rooms with steam. The person bathing lies upon an elevated bench, about six or seven feet from the floor, and two or three feet from the ceiling, where the steam and heat are most concentrated; here they soap themselves, and rub their skins with bundles of birch twigs with their leaves on, which they wash off by plunging into the river or rolling in the snow, so that in the winter they actually pass from thirty degrees of heat in the bath, to sometimes thirty degrees of cold in the open air, making a difference of sixty degrees of heat and cold by Reaumur, a thing hardly credible.'

The language in which these explanations are given is not always very correct, nor very luminous; and the French, as we have before remarked, is preferable to the English.

Prefixed to the third volume is a handsome portrait of the present Emperor Alexander I. displaying a countenance which corresponds with the features of character hitherto exemplified by that Prince.

ART. X. *Memoir of the Campaigns of General Bonaparte in Egypt and Syria;* and the Operations of General Dessaix, in Upper Egypt; by Berthier, *General de Division*, and *Chef de l'Etat-Major-General* of the Army of the East. Translated from the French by Thomas Evanson White. 8vo. pp. 251. 5s. Boards. Jordan. 1805.

AN actor in the scenes which he describes, and who has been privy to the councils and plans which directed the movements that he relates, almost always communicates to his narrative an interest which it never can derive from the most ingenious compiler. The reader is then as it were present at each

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each event; and he shares the fatigue of the march, the bustle of the camp, the tumult of the engagement, and the daring of the enterprize. If we compare the memoir now before us with the able account of the same matters given by Gen. Dumas, we feel in all its force the justness of the above observation.

The design of this performance, though studiously concealed, is to exalt the hero whose achievements it commemorates; and this object is pursued with great address and judgment. The aim of the writer is to make facts speak the praise of the personage whom he would celebrate; and he avoids drawing the inference, aware that the reader will more readily embrace it, when it appears to be a conclusion formed by himself. No fulsome flattery, nor a single adulatory remark, occurs to disgrace the writer, or to degrade his subject: but the semblance of truth and simplicity is throughout well preserved. We know, however, from less questionable sources, that it is only a *semblance;* and that many particulars, here detailed with so much appearance of good faith, vary most widely from the reality:—which character extends, we suspect, to every instance in which the vanity of the invaders is concerned. Still there is in the volume authentic matter sufficient to give it very considerable value: it contains much that demands the attention of professional and public men; much to instruct the curious; and much to amuse those to whom reading is a pastime.

A specimen of the manner in which French ambition glosses over its fraudulent and iniquitous projects is furnished in this passage:

'The military and political system adopted by Bonaparte since his arrival in Egypt, had for its object, to restore to civilization, and to its antient splendour, a country, once so flourishing. But at the same time he laboured to give freedom to the people, and to expel their tyrants; he neglected no occasion to convince the Porte of the desire entertained by the French Republic, to preserve the friendship which subsisted between the two powers. The Ottoman Porte had just grounds for complaint against the Beys of Egypt; whose frequent revolts, and usurpations, had left it but the shadow of power, in this province. The French also had experienced their outrageous conduct; to punish these usurpers, therefore, would be, at the same time, to avenge and serve the Porte, France, and Egypt itself. The commercial establishments which Bonaparte intended to form, would enrich the inhabitants, render Egypt the *entrepot* of the commerce of Europe and Asia, open to France and the Southern powers, new sources of wealth and prosperity, and destroy the commerce of the English in India, against whom this expedition was more particularly directed.'

We are told that Bonaparte, having repelled his internal adversaries,

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'Turned his attention to organizing a system of government for Egypt; he established a Divan in each province, and communicated to the people the first rights of Liberty, that of concurring in the Election of their own magistrates; he organized a novel system of warfare against the Arabs, who had so long devasted these fine countries; he established a new distribution of imposts, on principles more productive to the treasury and less oppressive to the people; he enforced a system of rigid economy in the administrative concerns of the army; he established a commercial company, in order to facilitate the exchange and circulation of all kinds of commodities. An institute was founded at Cairo, to which a library was attached; and a chemical laboratory was also constructed. A work shop, on an extensive scale, was opened for all the mechanic arts. The making of bread, and of various fermented liquors, was soon brought to the necessary degree of perfection; salt petre was refined, and several hydraulic machines constructed. While Bonaparte thus appeared to create a-new the city of Cairo; scientific and literary men proceeded by his orders into the interior of Egypt, where they made many interesting observations, and important discoveries with reference to geography, history, and natural philosophy.'

The nature of this extraordinary man seems to be principally adapted for measures demanded by the urgency of the moment. His plans for the temporary civil administration of the countries which he subdued are said to have been well calculated to answer their purposes: but if our accounts of the manner in which he acquits himself in the exercise of similar functions, with a view to permanency, are deserving of any credit, he then falls below an ordinary statesman.

On the occasion of a flag of truce being introduced, Berthier says:

'The officer who commanded the English boat, delivered a packet, containing proclamations of the Ottoman Porte, certified by the signature "SIDNEY SMITH;" they were conceived in the following terms:

"PROCLAMATION.

"*The Minister of the Sublime Porte,*

"*To the Generals, Officers, and Soldiers of the French Army in Egypt.*

"The French Directory, entirely forgetting the rights of nations, has led you into an error, beguiled your good faith, and in contempt of the laws of war, sent you to Egypt, a country subject to the dominion of the Sublime Porte, persuading you that it could consent to the invasion of its territories.

"Can you doubt, that in thus sending you to a distant region its sole end has been to exile you from France, to plunge you into an abyss of dangers, and to consign you to destruction? If, under a total ignorance of your situation, you have entered the land of Egypt; if you have served as the instruments of a violation of treaties, hitherto unknown among powers, is it not solely through the perfidy of your Directors? Yes, without doubt. Egypt, however, must be delivered from

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from an invasion so inquitous. Innumerable armies for that purpose are this moment on their march, and immense fleets already cover the seas.

"Those among you, of whatever rank, who wish to withdraw from the perils that await you, must, without delay, manifest your intentions to the commanders of the marine and land forces, of the allied powers; and you may rest assured of being conducted to those places, to which you are desirous of proceeding, and that you shall be furnished with passports, in order that you may not be molested on your route by the cruizers, or squadrons of the allied powers. Hasten, therefore, in time to take advantage of the benign intentions of the Sublime Porte, and regard this, as a propitious offer of extricating yourselves from the frightful abyss, into which you have been plunged."

"*Done at Constantinople, the* 11*th of the Moon Ramazan, the Year of Hegira* 1213, (*February* 5*th*, 1799.)

"I, the undersigned minister plenipotentiary of the King of England, at the Ottoman Porte, at present commanding the combined fleet, before Acre, certify the authenticity of this proclamation, and guarantee the execution of it."

(signed.) "SIDNEY SMITH."

"*On board the Tigre, this* 10*th of May*, 1799."

'This document received no other answer, than that which insulted honour accords to infamous advice—silent contempt.'

We think that the severe remark of the French General is fully justified. That such a measure should originate in the stupid Divan is no matter for wonder: but that it should have been backed and sanctioned by a gallant intelligent British officer, we own, as much astonished as it mortified us.

ART. XI. *The Life and Character of Bonaparte*, from his Birth to the 15th of August, 1804. By W. Burdon, A. M. 8vo. pp. 293. 4s. 6d. Boards. Ostell. 1804.

WHEN treating of a late publication by this writer *, we noticed the extravagant praise which he bestowed on Bonaparte, and anticipated a change in his sentiments. The event has justified our prediction; and, in the volume before us, he chaunts his palinody with becoming humility, and laudable frankness. It was the demand of the consulship for life that opened the eyes of Mr. Burdon. The victories which Bonaparte gained, and the professions which he made during the compaigns of Italy, certainly imposed on persons at a distance; but was there nothing in his violated engagements to the state of Venice, and in his surrender of that power to the Emperor;

* See Review for April 1804.

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was there nothing in his seizure of Malta, and in his invasion of Egypt in a season of profound peace; was there nothing in his conduct during the revolution of the 18th Brumaire;—that was calculated to raise suspicion, or at least to withhold praise? France at that period stood in need of a deliverer, and required a master: but it called for no extraordinary portion of sagacity to discover that the crafty General was acting for himself. All was done by force at that memorable epoch, and the revolution was completely a military event.

The angel of light in the former lucubrations of Mr. Burdon is, in the present volume, clothed with all the attributes of the prince of darkness, between whom and civil society there ought to be eternal war. If the portrait still does not exhibit all the deformities of the original, it is not the fault of the design, but only a failure in the execution; it is because the powers of the artist are unable to realize his conceptions. His sketch of the progress of Bonaparte in Italy shews considerable ability. The military achievements, however, having been often detailed, while the horrors, the oppressions, and the frauds, to which the Commander in chief was a party, are less known, we could have wished that they had here been more fully stated. An account of the subjugation of Venice, in a work lately noticed by us *, and which bears the internal marks of authenticity, would have furnished ample materials.

All persons have admitted that the speedy pacification of la Vendée was a measure which did credit to Bonaparte as a statesman. It has been supposed that the rapid submission of the Vendéeans was occasioned by the ready acquiescence of the Consul in all their religious demands: but we are here informed that fraud and cruelty were also much concerned in this transaction.

The notion which the author labours to convey, in the subsequent passage, is just and sensible:

'By those who are so much prejudiced against Bonaparte as to deny him talents, because he is without virtue, the success of his last campaign in Italy has been ascribed merely to an oversight of his opponent; for they say, that had not General Melas too much despised his strength, and even disbelieved his having entered Italy at the time he did, he would have opposed him much earlier, and prevented his concentering his forces so as to meet the Austrians on the fatal day of Marengo: but they who talk thus, pay a compliment to the talents of Bonaparte which they are hardly aware of; for they allow him to have performed things incredible; they allow that he assembled, and brought over the Alps, an army which it was thought could have hardly been formed, they allow him to have exceeded all that could

* See M. R. for January last.

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be supposed of him, even by those who were able to estimate his talents; and by thus attempting to attenuate his merits, they speak most highly in his praise. The honor of the battle of Marengo has been also wrested from him, and attributed wholly to Dessaix; but even supposing Bonaparte to have committed a fault by suffering Dessaix's division to have been so far behind, a circumstance he could not avoid, as the Austrians attacked him so early; yet is it not the highest proof of talents, to retrieve an error once committed, and to take advantage of the errors committed by others? which was the case when Bonaparte availed himself of Melas's mistake, in extending his wings, and thus weakening his main force—with such blind or such prejudiced reasoners as these, who deny the mighty talents of Bonaparte, it is almost useles to argue, for they seem determined not to be convinced. The fact is not less singular than true, that the Austrians would not believe that he was in Italy; they said, that some fellow resembling him had taken his name and collected together a parcel of brigands; but that it was impossible he could have passed the Alps with an army, when he was only a few days before in France; and even Melas himself, in an intercepted letter written to his mistress at Pavia, observes, "They say, in Lombardy, that a French army has entered Italy; but don't be afraid; and on no account leave Pavia." In twelve hours after, the French were in that very city.'

It is illiberal, as well as incorrect, to call the religious arrangement, effected by Bonaparte, the establishment of *Popery*. That system, which connects with the doctrines and rites of the Latin church extravagant notions of the Pope's authority, is properly what is meant by Popery: but the Gallican church, as formerly constituted, was completely distinct from Popery; and it is certainly not less so as modified under the concordat,—of which Mr. B. gives this account:

'The first article testifies the advantage which has been gained, since the reformation, by the civil, over the ecclesiastical power; it acknowledges the submission of the church to the state. "The catholic, appostolic, and Roman religion shall be freely exercised in France; its worship shall be public, but conformable to the regulations of police which the government shall judge requisite for the general tranquility." 2d, "The Holy See, in concert with the government, shall agree to a new circumscription of French dioceses." The object of this article is to diminish the number of the clergy; formerly there were 130 bishoprics and archbishoprics in France, when it was less than it is now; at present there are fifty of the former, and ten of the latter. The nomination of the superior clergy is given to the First Consul, and that of the curés to their diocesan, subject to his approbation. The stipends of the clergy are extremely small, and are paid out of the public treasury, for, by the 13th article, the Pope agrees that the clergy have no claim upon the lands of the church which have been alienated; the salary of an archbishop is fixed at 600l. a year, of a bishop at 400l. the higher order of the curés at 75l. and the second at 40l. a year. Bonaparte, by this article, certainly intended to

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to reduce the clergy to their primitive simplicity! The effect of this new establishment of religion has already been felt and confessed, with bitter tears of lamentation, by the zealous catholics; for such is the general indifference to Popery, now that the emoluments and power of the church are diminished, and persecution has ceased, that the bishops of several dioceses have complained of there not being a sufficient number of candidates for the sacred ministry, to fill up the vacancies occasioned by the deaths of the clergy, and they have, therefore, publicly exhorted the youth of their different dioceses to shew a warmer zeal for the welfare of religion, and their own spiritual and eternal interest.'

The commencing member of the subjoined paragraph is liable to much comment, while the concluding part of it is not less warranted by facts than it is pointedly and happily expressed:

'Though Bonaparte has forfeited almost every promise that he made, both in France and Italy, and blasted every hope that was formed of him, yet in some respects, both countries are in a better situation than they were before the revolutions which have happened in each, except so far as concerns the character of the individual by whom they are governed, for these revolutions have in both, suppressed many exclusive privileges, which exalted the few at the expence of the many; and the mass of the people are also relieved from the enormous accumulation of property, whether landed or personal, in few hands; they are free from the load of an arbitrary aristocracy, and an insolent, purse-proud clergy, with which they can hardly ever again be oppressed; *but for this relief they are not indebted to Bonaparte; whatever pressure they can sustain will be imposed on them, if he finds it in his power; all that they have gained they owe to the spirit of the times, and all that they are deprived of, they must attribute to him.*'

The deed of blackest perfidy, here recorded, ought not to be effaced from the remembrance of men, while there exists in the world any recollection of its author:

'On the 5th of May, the Blacks in St. Domingo submitted to the terms of the French; the children of Toussaint were restored to him, and he retired to his estate at Gonaive. Here was an opportunity for the exercise of clemency and justice; but as, in the first instance, it appeared that nothing but unconditional submission could satisfy the imperious temper of Bonaparte, so, after that, he was not to be gratified but by the basest treachery; and accordingly, under the pretence of a conspiracy, which he hardly had time to meditate, much less to execute, the wretched Toussaint was, in direct violation of the most solemn treaty, *seized, with his whole family*, at the dead of night, put on board a frigate, and sent in irons to France, from which he never returned, but was dispatched in some manner best suited to the cruel vengeance of the bloody tyrant. An act of treachery so abhorrent to all the customs and sentiments of civilized nations could only have been perpetrated by any other man on the coast of Africa or the wilds of America; but Bonaparte's ambition and love of power have rendered him

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him a savage at the most civilized period of society. When the negroes are calumniated as cruel, stupid, and incapable of civilization, let the character of Toussaint be contrasted with that of Bonaparte, and then let it be said which reflects most honor or most disgrace on human nature. The blacks of Hispaniola have since too severely avenged the cause of liberty and the murder of Toussaint; but who can wonder at the sanguinary excesses of savage Africans, when they can plead the example of civilized Europeans:—let those who teach "bloody instructions" forbear to wonder if they are put in practice; it is only to be lamented that the retaliation in general does not fall upon those who most deserve to suffer.'

When speaking of the acts of Bonaparte that were hostile to liberty, Mr. Burdon takes notice of his enmity to the British press. Though the observation be favourable to the French chief, we hesitate not to admit that this enmity was in a high degree provoked. Our public prints acted at once a mischievous and an indecent part. Their remarks on the title and internal administration of the French ruler of France ought not to have been allowed, by a power which was at peace with the government so braved and insulted; and if the flames of war did not sooner burst forth, it was not owing to any want of a most pernicious activity and zeal among these public censors. While animadverting on an unwarrantable license which, as it strikes us, affected the natural character, we shall not be suspected of wishing unduly to restrain the liberty of the press: for the line of distinction in these matters is marked and broad, and easibly discernible by all who seek to be guided by it. The measures of foreign policy of other states are proper topics for the most free discussion: but too much delicacy cannot be observed with regard to their proceedings, when they are purely domestic, and when they bear no relation to other powers.

Mr. Burdon will enter into no terms with Bonaparte, but preaches up eternal war with him, and would have the British Government openly and explicitly declare it to be its object to restore the exiled family! We have often spoken our sentiments on this head.

If we cannot admit that the sources, from which Mr. Burdon has taken his materials, be either so choice or so ample as he represents them to be, we do not deny that he has made fair use of such as were accessible to him. He writes in a better temper, and his sentiments have more of a Britsish cast, than on former occasions; and if patriotism is to be measured by the degree of hatred which it calls forth towards the grand enemy of the country, this Imperial biographer must be allowed to possess that feeling in the highest degree. The work, though necessarily of a temporary nature, furnishes proofs of respectable

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respectable powers and laudable diligence; and it imparts a considerable portion of information which has not been before communicated to the English public.

ART. XII. *A Supplement to a Tract entitled, a Treatise on the Construction and Properties of Arches, published in* the Year 1801; and containing Propositions for determining the Weights of the several Sections which constitute an Arch, inferred from the Angles. Also containing a Demonstration of the Angles of the several Sections, when they are inferred from the Weights thereof. To which is added, a Description of original Experiments to verify and illustrate the Principles in this Treatise: with occasional Remarks on the Construction of an Iron Bridge of one Arch, proposed to be erected over the River Thames at London. Part II. By the Author of the first Part. 4to. 7s. 6d. sewed. Egerton.

OF the first part of this treatise, we made mention in our Review for May 1802. The object of the author, as it is there stated, was to deduce the properties of the Arch from the properties of wedges forming the Arch-stones; and the weights of the *Voussoirs* being assigned, to exhibit the values of the Angles at which the sides of the Voussoirs ought to be inclined. The immediate motive for the publication of the first part was the agitated project of throwing a bridge over the Thames. At the time of that publication, if we recollect rightly, the Committee of the House of Commons had not addressed their Queries respecting the bridge to the Professors of the Universities. These Queries are now prefixed to the present supplement; and after the insertion of them the author says:

'After paying every attention to the subject which the importance of it demanded, it appeared for many reasons absolutely necessary, for furnishing satisfactory answers to the above Queries, to investigate the properties of arches from their first principles. The substance of these properties is comprised in a Tract, entitled a Dissertation on the Constructions and Properties of Arches, published in the year 1801, and continued in the present Treatise, now offered to the Public as a Supplement to the former Tract. The reader will perceive that most of the propositions in these Dissertations are entirely new, and that they have been verified and confirmed, by new and satisfactory experiments, on Models, constructed in brass by Mr. Berge of Piccadilly, whose skill and exactness in executing works of this sort are well known to the Public. Considering the importance of the subject, and the diversity of opinions which has prevailed respecting the construction of arches, and the principles on which they are founded, it seems requisite, that the final determination of the plan for erecting the bridge of one arch in question, should be subjected to a rigorous examination, in order to discover if any, and what, errors might be found in them. The best means of effecting this appears to be

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be by a publication, in which the propositions recommended for adopting being fairly stated, every person, who is of a different opinion, may have an opportunity of explaining his ideas on the subject, and of suggesting any different modes of construction, that are judged to be less liable to objection. To persons interested in these inquiries, it may be satisfactory to be informed, that the properties of arches, which are comprised in this latter Tract, have been found, on a careful and minute examination, and comparison, in no instance inconsistent with those, which are the subject of investigation in Part the First, but rather appear to strengthen and confirm the theory before published, allowing for the differences in the initial force or pressure, expressed in page 2, and in Figs. 1 and 2, inserted in this Tract, representing the different dispositions of the key-stones, from whence conclusions arise very different from each other, although all of them are strictly consistent with the laws of geometry and statics. It is particularly observable, that the deductions of the weights and pressures arising from a supposition of a single key-stone, do not exhibit conclusions which are strictly true, but require the addition or substraction of certain differences to make them consistent: whereas on the more correct supposition of two key-stones, corresponding with the case in which the initial pressure is in a direction parallel to the horizon, the conclusions derived from this principle are geometrically true, requiring no correction or alteration whatever; being in themselves certain and unalterable propositions. Practical inferences may be deduced from adopting either the principle of a single key-stone, or the more correct one of two equal key-stones; the differences, which are the consequences, whether subtractive, or additive, being so extremely minute as not to be made sensible in practice. With respect to the principal object of these inquiries, those which are expressed in the 19th and 20th Queries deserve particular attention.'

We are at a loss to comprehend Mr. Atwood's exact meaning, at the words 'it is particularly,' &c. Is there any difficulty in assigning the exact value of the initial pressure, when the weights of the wedges and the inclination of their sides to a vertical line are given? We think that there is none; and we shall propose a form by which the pressure may, in all cases, be generally exhibited. Let α, α', α'', &c. be the successive angles of inclination of the sides of the wedges with a vertical line; let the weights be W, W', W'', &c. and the horizontal thrust or pressure $= h$: then $h = \frac{W}{\text{tan. } \alpha \mp \text{tan. } \alpha'}$, consequently pressure, in the direction of a line perpendicular to the side of the wedge, is obtained by this equation:

$$p = \frac{h}{\text{cos. } \alpha'} = \frac{W}{\text{cos. } \alpha' \ (\text{tan. } \alpha \mp \text{tan. } \alpha')}.$$

Suppose, now, that we wish to estimate the initial pressure in the case of a single key stone, $\alpha = \alpha'$; consequently, (using

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(using the lower sign) $p = \frac{W}{\text{cos. } \alpha' \text{ 2 tan. } \alpha} = \frac{W}{\text{2. sin. } \alpha}$

Let there be 2 key stones, then $\alpha' = o$ cos. $\alpha' = 1$, consequently p (initial pressure) $= \frac{W}{\text{cos. } \alpha' \text{ tan. } \alpha} = \frac{W}{\text{tan. } \alpha}$

It is not our intention to manifest, by our own process, the same results at which Mr. Atwood has arrived: but we must remark that this mathematician's mode of demonstration is, by many degrees, too long and tedious. Since we wrote our last critique, a method has occurred to us which gives all the results obtained in the *Dissertation on Arches*, with great brevity, and not obscurely. If it were permitted to us to revise old judgments, we should subtract something from that portion of commendation which was formerly allotted to the author.

To the support of his theory, Mr. A. has called in the aid of experimental proof. Very exact models have been constructed; and the eye has seen a straight arch, formed of wedges, in equilibrio. If we might merely state our opinion, we should say that a model constructed like figure 11 (a rectilinear arch) cannot be in equilibrio, if the forces of friction and cohesion do not operate; and that a model constructed like the above, with this alteration only, that the *heights* of the Voussoirs should be only one half of their former dimensions, must certainly fall.—Mr. Atwood's theory requires considerable limitation.

In speaking of arches that have the form of the catenary curve, Mr. A. does not express himself with exactness:

'It has been observed (he says) by writers on the subject of arches, that a thin and flexible chain, when it hangs freely and at rest disposes itself in a form which coincides, when inverted, with the form of the strongest arch. But this proposition is without proof, and seems to rest on some fancied analogies arising from the properties of the catenary curve, rather than on the laws of geometry and statics, which are the bases of the deductions in the two Dissertations on Arches, contained in the preceding pages: if it should be proved that an arch built in the form of a catenary or other specific curve, acquires, in consequence of this form, a superior degree of strength and stability, such proof would supersede the application of the properties demonstrated in these Dissertations.'

Now many writers, as we could shew, deliver themselves very accurately concerning the catenary curve: they affirm, and truly affirm, that the curve, along which a number of infinitely small and equal globules must be arranged so as to be in equibrio, is the Catenarian; and this demonstration rests on the laws of Geometry and Statics. In fact, if x and y be the ordinate and abscissa of the curve, we may easily obtain an equation

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equation of this form: $dW = b\text{-}d\left(\frac{dx}{dy}\right)$ (we use the foreign notation): but $dW \propto dz$, consequently $dz = b'.d\left(\frac{dx}{dy}\right)$ an equation to the catenary, b' being an arbitrary constant quantity, and $dz = \surd\left\{dx^2 + dy^2\right\}$.

The work of Mr. Atwood, if intended for general circulation and useful purposes, ought to have been printed much less expensively: the price of the two parts being *fifteen shillings*.

Art. XIII. *Notes on the Bible*, by the late Rev. Charles Bulkley, published from the Author's Manuscript. With Memoirs of the Author and his Works. By Joshua Toulmin, D.D. 3 Vols. 8vo. 1l. 7s. Boards. Johnson.

In our notice of the sermon preached on the occasion of Mr. Bulkley's death, M. R. Vol. xxiv. N. S. p. 117. we gave some biographical particulars of this dissenting divine. The memoir by Dr. Toulmin, therefore, which is prefixed to the third volume of the work before us, needs not long detain us; for the lives of literary men furnish little variety of incident; and the prominent epochs of their chronology are best marked by a detail of the order of their publications. This course has been pursued by Dr. T. in his account of the life of his author which was passed in obscurity and in study; and who has left few other traces of his passage through this sublunary state, than those which are to be found in his works. We shall not be expected to follow the biographer in his history and review of Mr. Bulkley's writings, but shall content ourselves with transcribing the character of him with which the memoir concludes:

'The result of Mr. Bulkley's attention to religious enquiries was his entertaining enlarged and amiable views of the Divine Being. His mind was impregnated with elevated sentiments of devotion, and the love of God was his favourite theme. It was observed, that, in the offices of the pulpit and of the Lord's table, he was *borne away* by the grandeur and sublimity of the divine perfections. The ways of providence were marked by him with a penetrative eye, and the events of life were converted, in the course of his preaching, into topics of religious improvement.

'To a spirit of fervent devotion he united an enlarged benevolence of temper. No man ever cherished a greater degree of good will to the whole human race. He was, uniformly, a firm and unshaken friend of civil and religious liberty. In religious matters no one better understood the right of private judgment; what redounds still more to his praise, no one more readily allowed the exercise of it to others.

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The benevolence of his heart gave a glow, animation, and fervor to his pulpit addresses, and, in daily life, expressed itself in a readiness to oblige, a politeness of manners, an affability of deportment, a disposition to communicate his thoughts to others, and gratitude to his relatives and friends. Mr. Bulkley marked his character for integrity, by refusing offers, notwithstanding the straitness of his circumstances, which clashed with the dictates of his conscience; and by immediately availing himself, on some accession of fortune, to discharge to the full amount, the debts for which he had been able only to compound, and that by the generous aid of friends. The answer he made to a gentleman, who said he was sorry that he had so few to hear him, "Why so; if they are not here, they are elsewhere," shewed a mind superior to envy and jealousy of his brethren: and the dislike he testified, if his merits were mentioned, indicated his humility. It need only be added, in proof of the excellent tone of his mind and its pleasing frame, that every company, into which he came, was enlivened by his cheerfulness.

'It should not be suppressed, that this worthy and valuable character was not exempted from peculiarities and eccentricities; they consisted chiefly in not conforming to the innocent customs of the world, and were amply compensated by his intellectual and moral endowments.'

Dr. T.'s language is not always correct, and it is occasionally debased by stiff and aukward expressions. He speaks of ministers 'who were engaged in *setting apart* Dr. D. to the pastoral office;' when the common term *ordain*, or *consecrate*, (which implies taking from a common and appropriating to a sacred or religious use or function) would have been so much preferable. We twice meet with 'offer' instead of *occur*; and we are told that Mr. B. was '*borne away* by the grandeur of the divine perfections,' instead of by or in the contemplation of them.

We turn now from the biographer to Mr. Bulkley's Notes on the O. and N.T.; which display a considerable range of erudition, and in the collection of which he must have been laborious and indefatigable. He was accustomed to call this work *his Benjamin*, the child of his old age; and in his lifetime he was intent on its publication, having circulated Proposals for this purpose. The plan of this undertaking is calculated to throw considerable light on the sacred Scriptures, by assisting the scholar in apprehending the precise meaning of the words and phrases employed in them. It is indeed no new idea to collate parallel passages from profane writers, with the view of illustrating the sacred text: but no one has executed it to the extent to which Mr. B. has carried it. The books of the N.T. being written in a language of which we have many contemporaneous specimens, it is reasonable to suppose that a phraseology would occur

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occur in them similar to that which we find in the gospels and epistles; and that, by mere juxta-position, the Heathen Poets, Philosophers, and Historians, would be found to illustrate Evangelists and Apostles:—for though a mode of expression peculiar to itself exists in the N. T. on points relative to the Christian Dispensation, it is not to be supposed that its ordinary terms should differ from those which were employed by writers at the same period. The original authors of the Scriptures availed themselves of the language then in use; and without this practice, they could not have addressed themselves to the apprehension of their readers. In making extracts, therefore, from profane writers, who existed previously to or nearly coeval with the promulgation of the Gospel, Mr. B. fulfilled an important intention: but the phraseology of the Fathers is intitled to less attention, since it is evident that it was for the most part copied from the sacred Scriptures. Indeed, Mr. B. seems to admit the truth of this idea; for in noticing the doubtful age of Demophilus, who abounds with sentiments exactly analogous to those of the N. T., Mr. B. has observed that 'if he be really an heathen author, and his time prior to the publication of the Gospel, he must bear ample testimony to that correspondence between the sentiments of Christianity and those of the heathen world which we have endeavoured to point out: if on the contrary, he can be no witness at all in the case.' Quotations from Spenser's Faerie Queene might altogether have been spared, with others from modern divines; but Mr. B. seems willing to print all the contents of his interleaved Bible. The biblical student will not perhaps be displeased with the whole, though the leading design be sometimes exceeded. The author has followed Bos, Raphelius, Grotius, and others, with effect; and, as the editor observes, 'no one can lay down the work, after inspection of it, without a deep conviction, that the religious and moral truths, which are contained in the Scriptures, are congenial to the human mind in its most pure and improved state; and the irreligious and those who are indifferent to divine truth may blush, when they observe how a *Plato*, a *Maximus Tyrius*, an *Epictetus*, a *Cicero*, and a *Seneca*, spoke on topics of a religious and moral nature.'

Mr. Bulkley thus states his design in the preface:

'The numerous citations, from classical and heathen authors, which occur in the following notes, are by no means the effect of literary affectation. In the perusal of their writings I was much entertained and delighted with observing so exact and ample a correspondence, in their religious and moral sentiments, with those of the gospel and the holy scriptures. This gives us a pleasing idea of the divine government and dispensations with respect to the heathen world. And I

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have been the more willing to point out this view to others, as a very different account of the matter has been given by some, who have unhappily supposed that they were doing honour to Christianity by depreciating the religion of nature, and insisting upon the almost total ignorance, in this particular, of those who enjoyed no other light.'

It has been the fashion of late to decry the light of nature, and to argue with great energy against the power of reason: but this is as absurd as it would be for a man to lift a great weight in order to prove that he had lost the entire use of his arms. Revelation, by appealing to our intellectual faculties, and soliciting the decisions of our unbiassed judgment, cannot be supposed to require the annihilation, or even the degradation, of reason; and how much soever the field-preacher might declaim on this subject, it is strange to find any man who has received a classical education joining with him. How much more judicious are the subjoined remarks:

"There is," says Mornay, prefacing his book upon the truth of the Christian Religion, "belonging to the Jew and the Heathen, one common nature, which supplies to both, one common philosophy, and certain common principles; that there is one God, the governor of all things; that he is good, and by no means author of ill; that he is wise and consequently does nothing in vain; also that man is by nature made for immortality; that man ought to worship God, and be grateful to him, in order to his happiness; that this same man, however, is subject to various perturbations, prone to evil, lamely moving towards good," &c. And in the treatise itself we have him sending his reader to Seneca, Plutarch, and Epictetus, in order to his seeing how well the doctrine of Christians concerning Providence agrees with Heathen wisdom.

'There are such things declared and enjoined in the gospel, as have "their foundation" in the *law and light of nature*. Such are all the *Moral duties* which are taught therein. And two things may be observed concerning them; I That they are in some measure known unto men aliunde, from other principles. The inbred concreated light of nature doth, though obscurely, teach and confirm them. So the Apostle, speaking of mankind in general saith, το γνωστον του θεου φανερον εστιν εν αυτοις, Rom. i. 19. *That which may be known of God, is manifested in themselves* [*manifest in them*, Bible.] The essential properties of God rendering our moral duty to him necessary, are known by the light of nature: and by the same light are men able to make a judgment of their actions, whether they be good or evil; Rom. ii. 14, 15. Owen on the Spirit, book iii. chap. iii. § 57. p. 234—5. How the doctor's (*obscurely*) is to be reconciled with the apostle's φανερον, or *manifest*, I leave to the determination of the reader.'—

'The great Cyrus, says Mr. Blackwall in his Sacred Classics, p. 26, firmly believed a future state, and the eternal duration of human souls. And, says he, part ii. chap. i. § 3. "An excellent collection of morals may be drawn out of the classical authors; much resembling the sacred writers, both in sense and language," illustrating the remark in a following page or two by particular instances.'

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It is this plan which Mr. B. professes to follow: but he adds,

'I have likewise carefully introduced such striking and happy illustrations, whether critical, devotional, or practical, of particular texts, as occurred to me in authors not professedly commenting upon scripture: some of which, says Mr. Le Clerc, afforded him greater help than all the writers of commentaries. Something, however, of the same kind from authors of this other description has been intermingled.

'Sometimes too I have indulged my inclination, I hope not altogether unprofitably, in citations, which, though not directly explanatory, or illustrative, of this or that select portion of scripture, or suggesting any correspondence between the writings of the *New Testament*, and those of the ancient heathens; appeared to me remarkable, either on account of the author, or else, some singularity of sentiment, in reference to the general subject spoken of in the passage, or *verse*, to which they are annexed. But I have seldom, or ever, enlarged upon my design, or intention, in alleging them; leaving that matter to the reflexion and judgment of the reader.'—

'Upon the subject of the divine unity in particular, I wish it to be remarked (additionally to the more direct citations and correspondencies in several parts of this work produced and pointed out) how many passages from heathen writers, of different and widely distant periods, will occur, in the course of the following notes, in the highest degree expressive of it, though more immediately insisted upon with another reference.

'I have only to observe farther, that the candid reader, will not perhaps find his labour lost in consulting the parallel scriptures, or passages, of the sacred writers referred to without citation, as well as references of the like kind to other authors. The former, in particular, will, if I am not mistaken, exhibit such a sentimental harmony, and such an agreement in the representation of facts, customs, times, persons, and characters, as not a little to confirm the authenticity of the sacred volume.'

After having thus suffered the annotator to speak for himself with reference to the design of his work, little more is left for us than to adduce specimens of the mode of execution. *E.G.*

'Exod. xx. 17. Thou shalt not covet thy neighbour's house, thou shalt not covet thy neighbour's wife, nor his man servant, nor his maid servant, nor his ox, nor his ass, nor any thing that is thy neighbour's.

'A good man, says Philemon, will not covet another man's wife, nor his house, nor his man servant, nor his maid servant, nor his horses, nor his oxen, nor any of his cattle; in a word, not so much as a single needleful of thread belonging to another man.

'Μη ——— ———
Τ' αλλότρια βλέπειν, κακοπραγμοσύνη,
Ητοι γυναικός, ——— ἢ δούλης,
——— ——παιδός τε, παιδίσκης θ' ———
——— ——— βοῶν, ———
Μηδὲ βίλτρου ὅσσον ἄμμι'—— Ap. Poet. Minor. Cantab. p. 474.'

'Joshua

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'Joshua x. 12, 13. Then spake Joshua to the Lord in the day when the Lord delivered up the Amorites before the children of Israel, and he said in the sight of Israel, Sun, stand thou still upon Gibeon; and thou Moon, in the valley of Ajalon, &c.

'In Homer, Minerva lengthens out the night, nor suffers Aurora to put to; and Hyperion's mighty son stops his horses at her birth.

'Νυκτα μεν ω σχεδον δολιχον σχεθεν——
—— —— —— ουδ' εα ιεναι
Ζυγοφιν δ' —— —— ——

Odyss. lib. xxiii. ver. 243—245.

'—— —— Minerva check'd
Night's almost finish'd course, and held, meantime,
The golden dawn close prisoner in the deep,
Forbidding her to lead her coursers forth,
Lampus and Phaethon, that furnish light
To all the earth, and join them to the yoke.

—— Στησεν δ' Υπεριονος αγλαος υιος
Ιππους. —— ——

In Paladem. ver. 13, 14. Hymn. xxvii.

'The celebrated son of Hyperion stopt, for a long time, his swift-footed horses.'—

'Ps. xiv. 1. The fool hath said in his heart, There is no God.

'The iniquitous and unjust man, says Hierocles, wishes there may be no God, that he may escape punishment. Ο αδικων ου βουλεται ειναι θεον, ινα μη τα δικαια δωσι. In Aur. Carm. p. 90. Needham.'—

'Ps. cxxxix. 8. If I ascend up into heaven, thou art there: if I make my bed in hell, behold, thou art there.

'You are never overlooked, says Plato, by the Divine Judicature, whether you are so diminutive as to sink into the depth of the earth, or whether you be so lofty as to mount up to heaven. Ου γαρ αμελησει ποτε υφ' αυτης (δικης scil. θειας)· ουκ ουν σμικρος ει δυσει κατα το της γης βαθος, ουδε υψηλος γενομενος εις τον ουρανον αναβησει. De Legibus, lib. x. ap. Select. Dial. § 16. p. 224.'—

'Prov. iii. 14. For the merchandise of it is better than the merchandise of silver, and the gain thereof than fine gold.

'Wisdom weighs like gold, says Demophilus. Ο των σοφων λογος ωσπερ χρυσος, βαρος εχει μεγιστον. P. 18. Holstein.

'Righteousness, says Plato, is much better than gold.—Δικαιοσυνη —— πραγμα πολλων χρυσιων τιμιωτερον. De Repub. lib. i. p. 30, Mass.

'Ver. 16. Length of days is in her right hand; and in her left hand riches and honour.

'A good man, says Martial, lengthens out his space of life; and that he lives his days twice over, who can look back upon them with pleasure.

'Ampliat ætatis spatium sibi vir bonus: hoc est
Vivere bis, vita posse priore frui. Lib. x. ep. xxiii.
—— Quæ tibi nunc meritorum præmia solvam?
Quas referam grates? parcarum fila tenebo,
Extendamque colos. —— ——

Statii Sylv. iii. Hercul. Surrent.

'How

'How shall I reward your merits? Or how express my thanks? Why, I'll lengthen out your thread of life.'—

'Prov. xiv. 14. A good man shall be satisfied from himself.

'A good life, says Aristotle, needs no appendix, but has pleasure included within itself, nor is there any good man, who does not enjoy and rejoice in his own good actions. Ουδεν δη προσδειται της ηδονης ο βιος αυτος, αλλα περιαπτει τινα, αλλ' εχει την ηδονην εν εαυτω. Ουδ' εστιν αγαθος, ο μη χαιρων ταις καλαις πραξεσιν. Ethic. Nicom. lib. i. cap. viii. p. 29, 30.'—

'Eccles. xii. 7. Then shall the dust return to the earth as it was: and the spirit shall return unto God who gave it,

'We men, says Phocylides, live (here) but a little while; the soul, however, immortal, and knowing no old age, lives for ever.

'Ου πολυν ανθρωποις ζωμεν χρονον, αλλ' επικαιρον·
Ψυχη δ' αθανατος και αγηρως ζη δια παντος.
Ver. 109, 110.

'Ast illum amplexæ pietas virtusque ferebant
Leniter ad terras corpus. Jam spiritus olim
Ante Jovem, et summis apicem sibi poscit in astris.
Thebaid. lib. x.'

'Is. xl. 6. The voice said, Cry. And he said, What shall I cry? All flesh is grass, and all the goodliness thereof is as the flower of the field.

'Pliny takes notice of the admonitory quality of the fading flower. Flores vero odoresque de die in diem gignit, magna (ut palam est) admonitione hominum, quæ spectatissime floreant, celerrime marcescere. Plin. Nat. Hist. lib. xxi. Procem.'—

'Matth. v. 39. But I say unto you, That ye resist not evil: but whosoever shall smite thee on thy right cheek, turn to him the other also.

'If, says Epictetus, lib. iii. chap. xxvi. p. 359, 360. you have a laden ass, and any one, a soldier for instance, would take it from you, let him have it, make no murmuring or resistance. Αν δ' αγγαρευσ η——αφες, μη αντιτεινε——

'Ibid. p. 370, 371, speaking of Diogenes, he says, if you had a mind to take away any of his property, he would let you have it, rather than go after you to get it back again. In like manner, if you would deprive him of his friends, or banish him his country, he would be still resigned. Yet would this man never desert his true progenitors the gods, or his genuine country. Ει της χλαινης επελαβου——φιλως, φαιδρως. ωσαυτως——της γ' αληθινης προγονους——

'Aristole, in his Ethics, lib. v. cap. ix. p. 222. observes, that if a man be more liberal to others than indulgent to himself, he becomes his own injurer; which, says he, is no uncommon practice with men of well-regulated tempers; the good man easily parting from his own right. Ει τις πλειον——ουτω αυτω αυτος αδικει· εοικε δοκουσι τι μεμφεσθαι. Ο γαρ επιεικης ειλατταστικος εστιν.

'And Plato in his Gorgias, Op. ed. Basil. p. 317. bott. 318. top, expressly says, If any man strike thee on the cheek, don't revenge it; but

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but take my advice, and let the matter rest. Εαν κορρης τυπτοντα —— μη διδουαι δικην —— παυσαι δε ολιγον.

'And again, ibid. p. 326. middle, to be struck unjustly upon the cheek, is no such mighty shame; the shame is in the striker. Ου —— το τυπτισθαι επι κορρης —— αλλα το τυπτειν.'—

'Matth. v. 44. But I say unto you, Love your enemies, bless them that curse you, do good to them that hate you, and pray for them which despitefully use you, and persecute you.

'Demosthenes, de Coron. § 55. ed. Ox. p. 112. speaks of it, as what would redound highly to the honour of the Athenian people, if, forgetting all mutual injuries that might have passed (ωδιν μνησικακειν), they were to send help to the Thebans.

'His antagonist, Æschines, makes it to be one of the best lessons we can possibly learn, μη μνησικακειν, not to remember injuries. In Ctesiph. § 71. p. 113. Καλλιστον εκ παιδιας ρημα ——

'It was a maxim with the sect of Hegesiacs, (vide Aristip. Diogen. Laert. lib. ii. Vit. p. 82. ed. Stephan.) that you are not to hate (μη μισειν) the offender, but to teach him by your own example better manners.

'Socrates, Apol. sub fin. tells his accusers and judges, that though they were very far from meaning him that good, which he supposed would accrue to him from his death; but on the contrary meant his hurt, yet he could assure them, that he bore them no ill-will. Ου καλεπαινω.

'And in the Crito, he is made to say, that we ought not to revenge, nor to do ill to any man, how much soever he may have injured us. Ουτε αρα αντιδοκειν δει, ουτε κακως ποιειν, &c. Select. Dial. p. 60.

'Aristotle, in his Ethics, lib. iv. cap. iii. p. 169, 170. makes it the mark of a great and noble mind, not to remember injuries, but to forget and overlook them. Ουδε μνησικακειν, ου γαρ μεγαλοψυχε το απομνημονευειν —— αλλα μαλλον παροραν.'—

'—— 46. For if ye love them which love you, what reward have ye? do not even the publicans the same?

'He, says Aristotle, in his Ethics, lib. viii. cap. xiii. p 377. that gives upon the expectation of receiving as much or more in return, is more properly to be looked upon as a lender than as a giver. Ου δεδωκως, αλλα χρησας. But, says he, ibid. that which constitutes the true worth and virtue of the act, is for a man to do good without regard had to any advantages, that may be from thence accruing to himself. Καλως —— ευποιειν, μη ινα αντιπαθη.'—

'Matth. vi. 30. Wherefore, if God so clothe the grass of the field, which to day is, and to-morrow is cast into the oven.

'Pliny, lib. xx. cap. ix. speaking of the herb brassica, possessed of so many salutiferous qualities, observes, that there are several ways of preparing it, and amongst others, mentions the putting it into a pot, and the pot into the oven, or a furnace. In olla, quæ conjiciatur in clibanum aut furnum.'

This quotation from Pliny does not, we apprehend, apply to the passage in the Gospel; which refers, as Harmer has shewn, not

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not to the boiling or baking of cabbage, but to a practice in the East, where fuel is very scarce, of heating their ovens by means of the dried stalks of vegetables.

'Matth vii. 12. Therefore all things whatsoever ye would that men should do to you, do ye even so to them: for this is the law and the prophets.

'This is a maxim frequently occurring among the writers of the ancient Heathen world.

'We have it in Homer, Odyss. lib. v. ver. 188—191. I persuade you to nothing, which I would not persuade myself to, were I in your case; for my mind is fair and ingenuous, and my heart compassionate and tender, nor made of iron.

'Αλλα τα μεν νοεω και φρασσομαι, &c.

'In Herodotus, lib. iii. No. xcv. p. 136. the language is, What I blame in my neighbour, I will to the utmost of my power take care myself to avoid. Τα τω πελας επιπωλησσω. And again, lib. vii. No. clxxxv. p. 269. bot. 270. top, what he blames in them he will not do himself. Αυτος δε, τα ——επιπωλησσει——

'So in Polybius, Put yourself in my place, and say, What is to be done? Την εμην χωραν μεταλαβων——Lib. xv. p. 255. bot. ed. Basil.

'Be such, says Isocrates, ad Demonicum, to your parents, as you would wish your children to be to you. Τοιουτος——οιους —— P. 4. ed. Op. Steph. et ib. p. 6. You will then govern your anger, if you treat the delinquent in the same manner as you would wish to be yourself treated in the like case. Παραπλησιως προς τους αμαρτανοντας—— ωσπερ αν προς Ζευλον——

'And in his Panegyric, p. 57. ib. top, speaking of the ancient magistrates of Athens and Lacedemon, he mentions it to their praise, That they were far from behaving insolently in their office, but treated those who were subject to their authority, in the same manner as they themselves would wish to be treated by their superiors. Των αυτων αξιουντες γνωμην εχειν——

'And Aristotle, in his Politics, lib. vii. cap. ii. p. 438. ed. Francof. speaks in the severest terms of those who expect to be treated justly and handsomely themselves, and yet are not ashamed to trample upon all justice in their transactions with others. Οσπερ αυτους——ουκ αισχυνονται προς τους αλλους——

'Whatever the law admits, says one of the pleaders in Quintilian, Declam. ccli. end. p. 24. that you think is presently and without hesitation to be done, and catch with the greatest eagerness at every thing in it, that is the most cruel and severe: but, would you have liked such a disposition in the young woman, when you lay at her feet imploring your life? Quicquid asperrimum leges —— voluisses animum talem fuisse puellæ.

'Simplicius, in Epictetus, cap. xxxvii. p. 183. ed. Londin. makes it to be one of the rules of friendship, That you are to treat your friend in the same manner as you desire to be treated by him. Ουτω δει——ους——βουλομεθα.

'Very remarkable is the respect that was paid to this maxim of our Saviour, by the emperor Severus, which (he said) he had heard from some

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some Jews or christians. He often repeated it with a loud voice, and would sometimes order it to be pronounced by a public officer, as an objurgatory memento, on account of some injurious conduct chargeable upon one or another of those about him. And so much was he taken with it, as to order it to be inscribed upon the walls of his palace, and of other public buildings.'—

'John viii. 34—36. Jesus answered them, Verily, verily, I say unto you, Whosoever committeth sin, is the servant of sin, &c.

'No man, says Epictetus, lib. iv. cap. vi. p. 403. has power over me. I am God's free man: I have got the knowledge of his commands: henceforth no man can bring me into subjection. Εις εμε ανθρ; εξουσιαν εχει Ηλευθερωμαι υπο του Θεου· εγνωκα αυτου τας εντολας· ουκετι ουδεις δουλωσηται με δυναται.'—

'Rom ii. 14. For when the Gentiles, which have not the law, do by nature the things contained in the law, these, having not the law, are a law unto themselves

'As to what is to be done, and what is not to be done, who is there, says Epictetus, that does not come into the world with an implanted idea and notion of it? Και ο τι δει ποιησαι, και ο τι ου δει ποιησαι, τις ουκ εχων εμφυτον ενοιαν ελευθει; Lib. ii. cap. xi. sub init.

'Qua lege? Quo jure? Eo, quod Jupiter ipse sanxit, ut omnia, quæ reipublicæ salutaria essent legitima et justa haberentur. Est enim lex nihil aliud, nisi recta et a numine deorum tracta ratio, imperans honesta, prohibens contraria. Ciceron. Philippic. xi. ed. Freigii. tom. iii. p. 647.

'By what law? By what right? By that which Jove himself has constituted and established; that every thing salutary to the public, should have the character of lawful and just. For the law is nothing else, but that right reason, which we have derived from a divine council and will, commanding those things that are honest and praiseworthy, and forbidding the contrary.'—

'Rom. xii. 21. Be not overcome of evil, but overcome evil with good.

'Think it, says Isocrates, alike base and dishonourable to be overcome by the malice and ill usage of your enemies, and be outdone by your friends in generosity and kindness. Ομοιως αισχρον νομιζε την εχθρων νικασθαι ταις κακοποιαις και των φιλων ηττασθαι ταις ευεργεσιαις. Ad Demonicum. No. xvii. Op. 7.'—

'2 Tim. ii. 12. If we suffer, we shall also reign with him: if we deny him, he also will deny us.

'Ου μονον ξυμποτης της θεων εση αλλα και ξυνεδρος, says Epictetus to the man of virtue. Enchirid. cap. xxi.

'Thou shalt not only be a guest, but a fellow ruler with the gods.'—

'Heb. xi. 4. Being dead he yet speaketh.

'Τεθνηκως ζωω φθεγγομενω στοματι.

Theognis ap. Poet. Minor. p. 406.

'Though dead, with a living mouth, he speaks.'—

'James ii. 23. He (Abraham) was called the Friend of God.

'Achilles, in Homer, is called Φιλος θεοισιν. Odyss. lib. xxiv. ver. 92.

'In Plato the just man is a friend to the gods. Θεος —— φιλος. De Repub. lib. i. p. 74.

'In

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'In Epictetus the title or character of the good man is, the friend of God. Φιλος του Θεου. Lib. iv. cap. iii. p. 380.'—

'Jude 25. To the only wise God, our Saviour, be glory and majesty, dominion and power, both now and ever. Amen.

'To call by the name of wise, seems to me, says Plato, a great thing and belonging to God only. Το μεν σοφον —— καλειν, εμοι γε μεγα εναι δοκει, και Θεω μονω πρεπον. Phæd. sub fin. Op. p. 214.'

From these ample extracts, the reader will be able to discern the merit and tendency of these annotations. The editor, in preparing them for the press, and in superintending their publication, must have taken great pains. He has translated many of the passages to which Mr. B. had affixed no version; and it is to be lamented, for the sake of the English reader, that he did not extend this good office to every Greek and Latin quotation. Some oversights have occurred to our notice, as in Vol. i. p. 661. τυνημαρ τε και τυνα νυκτας we find adduced to prove that 'three days and three nights (referring to the story of Jonah) is a phrase with Homer:'—but in so long a work, a few mistakes are pardonable. Dr. Toulmin has performed the very acceptable service of subjoining dates to the catalogue of the authors quoted, and forming an index of principal matters. Future annotators on the Bible will, no doubt, avail themselves of Mr. Bulkley's Notes; and a perusal of the Greek and Roman Classics, with the same view, might furnish a considerable addition to their number.

Art. XIV. *A Tour through the British West Indies*, in the Years 1802 and 1803, giving a particular Account of the Bahama Islands. By Daniel M'Kinnen, Esq. Crown 8vo. pp. 280. 5s. Boards. White. 1804.

It may be said of books as of men, that many are of a varied and unequal character, while a few are more uniform and consistent. The narrative which proceeds in an even tenor may not always agitate, nor delight: but, if the matter be worthy of record, and the style and manner generally agreeable, we feel ourselves carried along with security and smoothness. If no glowing passage rouse our sensibility, no harsh contrast disturbs our repose. We confidently give our hand to our guide and companion, we lean on him by the way, and we part from him as if we could still linger in his presence. Such were the reflections with which we closed this unassuming volume. Without aspiring at the eloquence of a Raynal, or the extensive information and interesting painting of an Edwards, its author relates obvious facts and occurrences in a style more

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pleasing

pleasing than strictly correct; and, while he allows good sense and sound judgment to hold the pen, he seems to write without pause or constraint. A few pages present a faithful sample of the whole; the language and sentiment never rising to sublimity, nor sinking to meanness.

The subject of this even-toned recital has been treated by few, and therefore is far from being exhausted. Mr. M'Kinnen informs us that his observations were at first designed to be communicated in a letter to General Nugent, Lieutenant-Governor of Jamaica: 'but the novelty of the subject inviting a fuller examination than was first contemplated, has led to the little volume now offered to the public. As the topics to which the first chapters of the work relate are not altogether trite, they may afford some amusement to the general reader; but the observations of a traveller can add little to the information of those who have made the same countries their residence or study. The principal study of the author has been accuracy of representation: yet he is deeply conscious how remote he may be found from the exactness of truth, whilst attempting, on a first impression, to delineate objects so replete with novelty and interest.'

In the summer of 1802, our traveller embarked on his passage from England to Barbadoes. His remarks on the different currents of air in the tropical atmosphere must often have occurred even to our northern meteorologists. As an instance of the grateful influence of a tropical climate, a case is mentioned of a young person labouring under a severe pulmonic affection, who thought that he awoke as from a painful dream, on approaching the genial latitude, 'and with extravagant signs of joy ran about the deck, exclaiming that an oppressive load had been taken from his head.'—The result, however, is not recorded.

A neat and succinct account is given of Barbadoes, which is the farthest advanced to windward of all our insular possessions in the West Indies, and, consequently, a station of great importance. The dirtiness of Bridgetown, its capital, at first excited an idea that the national character of cleanliness was obliterated in these western colonies: but, on reflection, the author ascribes the warped and decayed aspect of the wooden houses, and the general slovenliness of the streets and of private apartments, to those alternations of heat and rain which are incident to the climate, to the temporary residence of the principal inhabitants, and to the great proportion of houses belonging to the people of colour and emancipated slaves. The debility and perspiration which are induced by walking, the risk of incurring disease by exposure to the sun, or by any excitement

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citement of the animal system, the night-air and dews, and the wretched state of the roads after rain, are mentioned as powerful discouragements to excursions in the country. Barbadoes, however, compared with the other West India islands, is represented as healthy.—Where the plough has been introduced, agricultural operations are conducted in a manner both slothful and expensive; it being by no means unusual to see a team of sixteen or even twenty small oxen, and three or four negroes, engaged in a piece of work which a single man, with a horse and cart, would perform with ease in England.

From Barbadoes, Mr. M'Kinnen proceeded northward, sailing through the straits between St. Vincent's and St. Lucia, and between the lofty shores of Martinique and Dominica. This last mentioned island, which he next visited, is an assemblage of mountains, with cultivated patches in the vallies, and on the sides of the hills. The soil, which is but very partially cleared of wood, is reckoned rather unfavourable to cultivation. From the top of one of the mountains, a volcanic smoke was continually emitted, unaccompanied by flame; and a hot sulphureous spring issued from the mountain, in which an egg was completely boiled in three minutes.

The total extinction of the red Charaibs, a few of whom still lead a wandering life in Dominica, appears to be fast approaching; 'and a wretched destiny perhaps awaits the islands of which we have deprived them. At present the strength and energy of a great nation, in its meridian, by the emanation of its population and power supports a forced and unnatural state of society: but when those energies shall cease to operate (for there is an inevitable change that awaits all sublunary states), and Nature resumes her uncontrolled dominion, they probably will become inhabited by a mongrel race of people, under the influence of some superior power, and destitute of that generous and indomitable spirit which many of the American savages cherished in the wildness of their woods; the vigorous forerunner of a dignified freedom, which probably would have attended their subsequent civilization.'

On quitting Dominica, the author sailed nearly round the island of Guadaloupe; of which the coast presented a melancholly picture of deserted plantations, and only here and there a negroe fire.

Antigua, on which Mr. M'K. next landed, exhibited a very different aspect, the grounds being in a high state of culture, and abundantly fruitful. St. John's, the principal town, is well laid out; and though, like most of the sea-port towns in the West Indies, situated on the leeward side, it enjoys peculiar advantages: being within the reach of the easterly breeze,

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breeze, and its sloping direction towards the sea carrying off impurities which would otherwise stagnate. On this island, the Moravian brethren have been particularly encouraged in their pious labours of conversion; and the inhabitants have extended to the slaves the privilege of trial by jury in criminal cases.

Returning by Guadaloupe to Barbadoes, Mr. M'Kinnen next visited Jamaica: but here his cursory remarks can interest only those who are strangers to the more detailed descriptions of this important island. We shall, therefore, pass to his cruize among the Bahamas.

The larger clusters of these islands are reckoned fourteen, while the smaller have been computed to amount to at least seven hundred. Notwithstanding the fine and steady climate which they enjoy, and their capability of yielding the varied products of the temperate and torrid zones, the intricacies of a dangerous navigation, and the scanty soil with which most of them are covered, have hitherto operated against their regular colonization. They have consequently attracted less notice than almost any part of the British dominions. They were first discovered by Columbus, in the course of his ever memorable voyage. Their principal productions are cotton, salt, turtle, fruit of various kinds, mahogany, and dyeing-woods.—The *Turks Islands* yield a very considerable quantity of salt, in natural ponds, or *salinas*, which are formed by the violent action of the sea on the calcareous rock. When the salt has crystallized by the heat of the sun, it is sometimes merely broken into pieces, and raked on shore. The process is, however, facilitated by confining the brine in flat pans, which are replenished as the salt is taken out.

'Various traces of the aborigines (who in numbers much exceeded any population likely to ensue) have been discovered at the Caicos: amongst others, utensils formed of clay, and a hatchet of stone curiously embossed with a dolphin's head. In a cave, some scalls, I was informed, had been recently taken up, which, on being touched, immediately mouldered to dust. An old road traversing one of the islands was also found by the first settlers, which they ascribed to the Indians; for the Spaniards, although they exterminated the inhabitants, were indifferent about their country, which they deemed not worth the possession.'

The great *Heneaga* is chiefly known for its treacherous coast, the scene of frequent shipwrecks. About ten or twelve leagues to the northward, lie the *Hogsties*, which are familiar only to the *wreckers*. These are persons licensed by the Governor of the Bahamas to cruize among these islands, and to receive salvage on whatever property they rescue from the waves. They are hardy,

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hardy, dexterous, and enterprizing; being habituated, from early life, to the perils of the deep, and to diving for *conchs*, which abound on their shores.—The ensuing dialogue is a striking comment on their notions of morality:

'Happening in the course of one of my passages through the Bahamas to fall in with a wrecker, I held as long a conversation with him as his haste would permit, and was inquisitive on the subject of his occupation. I will set down the dialogue as it took place.

'*Q.* From whence came you?

'*A.* (As it caught my ear) From Providence—last from *Philimingo* Bay in *Icumy* (a familiar way of pronouncing *Flamingo* Bay in *Exuma*).

'*Q.* Where are you bound to?

'*A.* On a *racking* voyage to Quby (Cuba) and the westward.

'*Q.* Are there many of you in this quarter?

'*A.* Morgan, I, and Phinander (Fernandez):—parted company awhile ago.

'*Q.* What success in cruising?

'*A.* Middling—but middling.

'*Q.* We have seen very few wreckers to the eastward—are there many to the westward?

'*A.* We lay with forty sail four months along *Floriday* shore.

'*Q.* Forty sail? Then certainly you must have had many opportunities of being essentially serviceable to vessels passing the Gulf stream, by directing them to keep off from places of danger, with which you made it your business to become acquainted?

'*A.* Not much of that—they went on generally in the night.

'*Q.* But then you might have afforded them timely notice, by making beacons on shore, or showing your lights?

'*A.* No, no (laughing): we always put them out for a better chance by night.

'*Q.* But would there not have been more humanity in showing them their danger?

'*A.* I did not go there for humanity: I went *racking*. (In truth, as strong an apology as any that can be suggested for it.')

Crooked Islands afford both salt and cotton. The latter is cultivated by some of those American loyalists, who, on the cession of East Florida to the Spaniards, migrated to the Bahamas: but, notwithstanding their exertions, the planters are far from being in a thriving condition:

'It was impossible to behold without regret many amiable and industrious planters, who, having been twice driven from their homes, and deluded by a deceitful prospect of prosperity, were now sinking into ruin from which no exertion on the spot could effectually relieve them. Although Nature in all these islands spontaneously brings forth many vegetables, both curious and beautiful, she has hitherto refused to resign herself to continued cultivation. The exotics which are introduced seem feebly and unsuccessfully to struggle with cold winds, the droughts, and unfriendly seasons; whilst a crop of hereditary and worthless weeds *take* possession of the soil prepared for

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cultivation, and extract all its nourishment to administer fertility, as they decay, to the native and unprofitable forest trees succeeding them, the elemi, silver-leaved palmettos, and hungry aborigines of the rocks.'

On Acklin's Island, Mr. M'Kinnen's attention was principally directed to the cultivation of cotton, and the habitudes of the flamingo. 'The flesh of this bird is extremely rich, much like that of the wild duck, but with a strong fishy taste. The tongue is certainly delicate; but I did not find it worthy of the high encomiums bestowed on it by the antients; by whom a dish of flamingos' tongues was esteemed one of the greatest delicacies in their luxurious feasts.'

The great Bahama Bank, which occupies an expanse of some hundred leagues in circumference, seems in a great measure to consist of the relics of sea-shells, in the form of sand, more or less rounded by attrition. Of this description, also, are the shores of the Bahama Islands, in general. On proceeding over the great bank to New Providence, the reflection of the white sand rendered the sky almost of a livid colour: while the azure of the horizontal sky seemed, at the same time, flushed with an infusion of pink.

Nassau, the capital of New Providence, is described as one of the best built towns which the author saw in the West Indies; and it is likewise the principal military and naval station in the Bahamas. Its chief trade is with England, the southern islands of the West Indies, and the United States of America. The civil government of the Bahamas, of which New Providence is the seat, is neatly sketched by this sensible writer: but, as it is modelled on the form of our colonial systems of administration in the west, we forbear to particularize its constitution. Considerable benefit may be expected to accrue to this and the other islands, from an agricultural society which has been lately instituted under the patronage of the legislature of the Bahamas: though little hope seems now to be entertained of raising cotton with success.

The admirers of ferocious daring will be gratified with the portrait which Mr. M'Kinnen has drawn of *Black Beard*, the pirate; who, in the brave Lieutenant Maynard, found at length his conqueror:

'From the nature of Black Beard's position, in a sloop of little draught of water, on a coast abounding with creeks, and remarkable for the number and intricacy of its shoals, with which he had made himself intimately acquainted, it was deemed impossible to approach him in vessels of any force. Two hired sloops were therefore manned from the Pearl and Lime frigates in the Chesapeak, and put under the command of the gallant officer before named, with instructions to hunt

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hunt down and destroy this pirate wherever he should be found. On the 17th of November in the year 1718, this force sailed from James River, and in the evening of the 21st came to an inlet in North Carolina, where Black Beard was discovered at a distance lying in wait for his prey. The sudden appearance of an enemy preparing to attack him occasioned some surprise; but his sloop mounting several guns, and being manned with twenty-five of his desperate followers, he determined to make a resolute defence; and, having prepared his vessel over-night for action, sat down to his bottle, stimulating his spirits to that pitch of phrensy by which only he could rescue himself in a contest for his life. The navigation of the inlet * was so difficult that Maynard's sloops were repeatedly grounded in their approach; and the pirate, with his experience of the soundings, possessed considerable advantage in manœuvring, which enabled him for some time to maintain a running fight. His vessel, however, in her turn having at length grounded, and the close engagement becoming now inevitable, he reserved her guns to pour in a destructive fire on the sloops as they advanced to board him. This he so successfully executed, that twenty-nine men of Maynard's small number were either killed or wounded by the first broadside, and one of the sloops for a time disabled. But notwithstanding this severe loss, the lieutenant persevered in his resolution to grapple with his enemy, or perish in the attempt. Observing that his own sloop, which was still fit for action, drew more water than the pirate's, he ordered all her ballast to be thrown out, and, directing his men to conceal themselves between decks, took the helm in person, and steered directly aboard of his antagonist, who continued inextricably fixed on the shoal. This desperate wretch, previously aware of his danger, and determined never to expiate his crimes in the hands of justice, had posted one of his banditti with a lighted match over his powder magazine to blow up his vessel in the last extremity. Luckily in this design he was disappointed by his own ardour and want of circumspection: for, as Maynard approached, having begun the encounter at close quarters by throwing upon his antagonist a number of hand-grenadoes of his own composition which produced only a thick smoke, and conceiving that from their destructive agency the sloop's deck had been completely cleared, he leaped over her bows, followed by twelve of his men, and advanced upon the lieutenant, who was the only person then in view. But the men instantly springing up to the relief of their commander, who was now furiously beset and in imminent danger of his life, a violent contest ensued. Black Beard, after seeing the greater part of his men destroyed at his side, and receiving himself repeated wounds, at length, stepping back to cock a pistol, fainted with the loss of blood, and expired on the spot. Maynard completed his victory by securing the remainder of these desperate wretches, who were compelled to sue for mercy, and a short respite from a less honourable death at the hands of the executioner.'

The consummate address and bravery of Col. Deveaux, who (as several of our readers may recollect) seized on New Providence with a handful of men, is here also honourably recorded.

'* Occacocke inlet, a little south of Cape Hatteras.'

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In his concluding chapter, this agreeable tourist rapidly notes his progress by the *Berry*, *Bimini*, *Eleuthera*, and *Great Bahama Islands*, to *Charlestown*, in North America. The most prominent passage in the course of these hurried minutes is that in which he traces the eventful history of the *Lucayans*, or aboriginal inhabitants of the Bahamas:

'A passage in Herrera came forcibly to my recollection whilst meditating on the subject, in which he says that on the first arrival of the Spaniards this unsuspecting but devoted people were never satisfied with looking at them: they knelt down, lifted up their hands, and gave thanks to God, inviting one another to admire the *heavenly men*. Twenty years, however, had scarcely elapsed before these heavenly men found it convenient to transport them, by force or artifice, to dig in the mines of Hispaniola; a measure to which the court of Spain was tempted to give its assent by the plausible suggestion that it would be the most effectual mode of civilizing and instructing them in the christian religion. Upon this pretence 40,000 souls (probably the whole population of the islands) were transported to Hispaniola. So exalted was the opinion which this simple people entertained of their destroyers, and so strong and universal is the persuasion of the human mind that a destiny awaits it beyond the miseries and disappointments of its present bounded existence, that many of the Lucayans were induced with cheerfulness to abandon their homes, under a persuasion that they should meet in a happier country the spirits of their deceased friends, with whom the Spaniards respresented themselves as living in a state of society. As the situation of these islands with respect to each other invited a continual intercourse amongst the inhabitants, who probably subsisted in a great measure on fish, one may justly presume they were principally devoted to a maritime life. Some of their canoes were large enough to carry between forty and fifty persons. Indeed many convincing proofs of their intrepidity and expertness in the water occurred after their transportation to St. Domingo; when, finding the delusion which had been practised to decoy them from their native country, they made every effort to regain it. Some few effected their escape, although many were frustrated in the design. Two men and one woman had constructed a raft; and having laid in a stock of Indian corn, and water in gourds, in the hollow of a tree attached to the bottom of the raft, they put to sea, proceeding in a northern course towards New Providence. As might be expected, they were often washed from the deck of their precarious vessel: but being admirable swimmers, and accustomed to struggle with the waves, they regained the raft; and working their way with paddles, they had actually proceeded one hundred and fifty miles on this long and perilous voyage, when, intercepted by a Spanish ship, it was their cruel fortune to be carried back again to the country which they so much detested, and where they were doomed to eternal slavery. There are very few particulars in which the inhabitants of these islands will be found to differ from the natives of Cuba, or of the North American continent, whence in all likelihood they originally emigrated. In person they were of a middle stature, well shaped, but rather fleshy, of an olive

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colour, with high foreheads, open countenances and regular features. Their hair was black, lank and thick, sometimes cut short over their ears, and sometimes tied in tresses. They were for the most part naked, and their bodies or faces, like those of the North American warriors, were painted generally red, but sometimes black or white. They were totally ignorant of the use of iron; and the only articles of any value discovered amongst them were cotton and gold. Although averse to war, they sometimes found it necessary to arm themselves in self defence; and on such occasions they made use of javelins pointed with fish bones. The principal talent they possessed, and which the Spaniards found of value, was their extraordinary expertness in diving, having been probably accustomed to subsist on conchs obtained in this manner in the Bahamas. On this account they were generally transported by the Spaniards still further south, and employed in the pearl-fishery on the island of Cubagua, on the coast of Cumana in South America. It is said that one hundred and fifty ducats, at that time a large price, were often given at Hispaniola for a diver of the Bahamas. They survived, however, but a few years, under the dominion of their oppressors.'

If we have allotted more room to our report of this volume than its size may seem to require, we can only say that we found in it a greater quantity of pleasing information than usually contained in the same number of pages. It is, therefore, not without reluctance that we advert to the author's repeated insinuations of the *comfortable* condition of the West India slaves. These victims of European rapacity may experience better or worse treatment, according to the dispositions of their masters and overseers: but we know the amount of the judicial depositions which were submitted to the legislature; we know that, when Lord Seaforth recommended it to the Assembly of Barbadoes to make the murder of a slave felony, his proposal was indignantly rejected; we know that the Guinea trade is a deliberate insult on every feeling of justice and humanity; and we cannot patiently tolerate any alleged defence, or even extenuation, of such a system of enormity.

Art. XV. *The Spirit of Discovery;* or, the Conquest of Ocean, a Poem, in Five Books: with Notes, historical and illustrative, to which are added, smaller Sea-pieces, Epitaphs, &c. By the Rev Wm. Lisle Bowles, Prebendary of Salisbury, and Chaplain to H. R. H. the Prince of Wales. Crown 8vo. pp. 289. 9s. Boards. Cadell and Davies.

We are seldom disposed to augur favourably of the effect of any composition, which is introduced to our notice by a formal explanation of the design, and of the relation of its several parts. An early anxiety to sketch and vindicate the plan

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betrays something like consciousness of faulty arrangement or inherent obscurity; while the poor reader, who very good-naturedly peruses the preliminary analysis, is apprized of all the secrets of the work before he begins it, and consequently proceeds with languor, if he proceed at all. Since the Rev. author of 'the Spirit of Discovery' shrinks not from the strictest investigation, we could very readily have excused the extreme complaisance with which he labours to prevent the inattentive reader from hinting at *carelessness of arrangement:* but, notwithstanding this discouraging circumstance, we have accompanied him in his excursive effusions with no unpleasing emotions. The poem opens with this animated address to his lyre:

> 'AWAKE A LOUDER AND A LOFTIER STRAIN!'
> Beloved Harp, whose tones have oft beguil'd
> My solitary sorrows, when I left
> The scene of happier hours, and wander'd far,
> A pale and drooping stranger; I have sat
> (While evening listen'd to the convent's bell)
> On the wild margin of the Rhine, and woo'd
> Thy sympathies, "a-weary of the world,"*
> And I have found with thee sad fellowship,
> Yet always sweet, whene'er my languid hand
> Pass'd carelessly o'er the responsive wires,
> While unambitious of the laurell'd meed
> That crowns the gifted bard, I only ask'd
> Some stealing melodies the heart might love,
> And a brief sonnet to beguile my tears!
>
> 'But I had hope that one day I might wake
> Thy strings to higher utterance; and now
> Bidding adieu to glens, and woods, and streams,
> And turning where, magnificent and vast,
> Main Ocean bursts upon my sight, I strike,—
> Rapt in the theme on which I long have mus'd,—
> Strike the loud lyre, and as the blue waves rock,
> Swell to their solemn roar the deep'ning chords.'

The Spirit of the Ocean, the Shade of Camoens, and Mr. Barton, an early friend of the author, are next successively invoked: but the subject properly commences with the resting of the ark on the mountains of the great Indian Caucasus; which Sir Walter Raleigh, and Mr. Clarke, in the Introduction to the History of Navigation, consider as corresponding to Ararat. In this and some other particulars, Mr. Bowles ventures to deviate from the common opinion, and even from historical records; and for these deviations, his apology appears to

'* Shakespeare.'

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be sufficiently reasonable. 'I must,' he says, 'beg it to be remembered, that History and Poetry are two things; and that the Poet has a right to build his system, not on what is exact truth, but on what is at least plausible; what will form, in the clearest manner, a WHOLE; and what is most susceptible of poetical ornament.'

The mention of the ark, which is supposed to have furnished the first ideas of navigation, suggests some reflections on the present state of the world, as contrasted with its deplorable condition immediately after the flood. A picture of the wreck of the deluge is succeeded by one of a very opposite description:

'So placid Evening steals
After the lurid storm, like a sweet form
Of faitie following a perturbed shape
Of giant terror, that in darkness strode.
Slow sinks the lord of day; the clust'ring clouds
More ardent burn; confusion of rich hues,
Crimson, and gold, and purple, bright inlay
Their varied edges; till before the eye,
As their last lustre fades, small silver stars
Succeed; and twinkling each in its own sphere,
Thick as the frost's unnumber'd spangles, strew
The slowly-paling heav'ns. Tir'd Nature seems
(Like one, who, struggling long for life, had beat
The billows, and scarce gain'd a desert crag)
O'er-spent to sink to rest: the tranquil airs
Whisper repose. Now sunk in sleep reclines
The Father of the world; then the sole moon
Mounts high in shadowy beauty; every cloud
Retires, as in the blue space she moves on
Amid the fulgent orbs supreme, and looks
The queen of heav'n and earth. Stilly the streams
Retiring sound; midnight's high hollow vault
Faint echoes; stilly sound the distant streams.'

It is then predicted to Noah by the Angel of Destruction, in a dream, that the eventful discovery of America, and the horrors of the slave-trade, will take place: while another angel explains to him, in his *waking* hours, the future progress of society, the growth of superstition, and the triumphs of Christianity and navigation.—Book II. commences with a wish that, as Noah saw the history of his posterity revealed in vision, so we may be enabled to take a retrospective view of ages that are past, and contemplate the splendor of Thebes and Edom. Referring to the sacred writings as the earliest authentic record of history, the poet celebrates the sons of Cush, the worship of the ark in Egypt, the voyage to Arabia and Ophir, the striking effects of the Monsoon, &c. The glory of Tyre, and the discoveries of her navigators,

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vigators, next introduce some poetical glimpses of the Italian and Spanish shores, the Straits of Gibraltar, and the British Isles.

The prosperity and the fall of Tyre are thus strongly contrasted:

'So did thy ships to earth's wide bounds proceed,
O Tyre, and thou wert rich and beautiful
In that thy day of glory. Carthage rose,
Thy daughter and the rival of thy fame,
Upon the sands of Lybia; princes were
Thy merchants; on thy golden throne thy state
Shone, like the orient sun. Dark Lebanon
Wav'd all his pines for thee: for thee the oaks
Of Bashan tower'd in strength: thy gallies cut
Glittering the sunny surge; thy mariners,
On ivory benches, furl'd the 'broider'd sails,
That looms of Ægypt wove, or to the oars,
That measuring dipp'd, their choral sea songs sung—
The multitude of isles did shout for thee,
And cast their emeralds at thy feet, and said,
"*Queen of the Waters, who is like to thee?*"

'So wert thou glorious on the seas, and said'st,
"*I am a God*, and there is none like me."
But the dread voice prophetic is gone forth.
"Howl, for the whirlwind of the desert comes!
Howl ye for Tyrus, for her multitude
Of sins and dark abominations cry
Against her," saith the LORD; "In the mid seas
Her beauty shall be broken; I will bring
Her pride to ashes; SHE SHALL BE NO MORE."
The distant isles shall tremble at the sound
When thou dost fall; the princes of the sea
Shall from their thrones come down, and cast away
Their 'broider'd robes; for thee they shall take up
A bitter lamentation, and shall say,
"How art thou fall'n, renowned city! THOU
Who wert enthron'd glorious on the seas,
To rise no more."*

The rise and triumphs of our own island are then commemorated, in these glowing strains:

'So visible, O GOD,
Is thy dread hand in all the earth! Where Tyre
In gold and purple glitter'd o'er the scene,
Now the poor fisher dries his net, nor thinks
How great, how rich, how glorious, once she rose!
Meantime the farthest isle, cold and obscure,

'* See the awful and striking language of Isaiah, Ezekiel, &c.'

Whose

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Whose painted natives roam'd their woody wilds,
From all the world cut off, that wond'ring mark'd
Her stately sails approach, now in her turn,
Rises a star of glory in the West —
ALBION, THE WONDER OF THE ILLUMIN'D WORLD.
She sees a Newton wing the highest Heav'ns:
She sees an Herschell's* daring hand withdraw
The luminous pavilion, and the throne
Of the bright SUN reveal: She hails the voice
Of holy truth amid her cloister'd fane,
Where the clear anthem swells: Sees Taste adorn
Her palaces; and Painting's fervid touch
Bid the rich canvas breathe: Hears angel strains
Of Handel, or melodious Purcell pour
His sweetest harmonies; sees Poesy
Open her vales romantic, and the scenes
Where Fancy, an enraptur'd votary, roves
At eve: She hears her Shakespeare's voice, who sits
Upon a high and charmed rock alone,
And like the genius of the mountain, gives
His rapt song to the winds, while Pity weeps,
Or Terror shudders at his changeful tones,
As when his Ariel soothes the storm! Then pause,
For hark! the lone waves answer, "Lycidas
"Is dead, young Lycidas, dead ere his prime,"†
Whelm'd in the deep beyond the Orcades,
Or where the "vision of the guarded mount,
"BELLRUS holds."‡

'Nor skies, nor earth, confine,
Albion, thy march of glory; on she speeds—
The unknown barriers of the utmost deep
Her prow has burst, where the dread genius slept
For ages undisturb'd, save when he walk'd
Amid the darkness of the storm! her fleet
E'en now along the East rides terrible,
Where early-rising commerce cheer'd the scene!
Heard ye the thunders of her vengeance roll,
As NELSON, through the battle's dark red haze
Aloft upon the burning prow directs,
Where the dread hurricane, with sulph'rous flash,
Shall burst unquenchable, while from the grave
Osiris AMPLER seems to rise? Where THOU,
O Tyre, didst awe the subject seas of yore,
ACRE e'en now, and ancient CARMEL hears

'* See Herschell's wonderful discoveries relating to the sun.'
'† Milton's exquisite Lycidas, here introduced, rather than the sublime "Paradise Lost," on account of its maritime cast.'
‡ "The dread vision of the guarded Mount."—Milton.

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The cries of conquest: mid the fire and smoke
Of the war-shaken citadel, with eye
Of temper'd flame, yet resolute command,
His brave sword beaming, and his cheering voice
Heard mid the onset's cries, his dark brown hair
Spread on his fearless forehead, and his hand
Pointing to Gallia's baffl'd chief, behold
The British Hero stand! Why beats my heart
With kindred animation? The warm tear
Of patriot triumph fills mine eye! I strike
A louder strain unconscious, while the harp
Swells to the bold involuntary song.'

This ensuing song is a spirited epode on the Siege of Acre, and British triumphs in the East.

In a poem of such limited length, and of such high import, we could gladly dispense with superfluous dilatation, and tame recurrence of subjects already discussed. To the fate of Tyre, and the resting of the ark, the author again alludes in the third book: but from them we willingly pass to the fall of Babylon, the character and policy of Cyrus, his ill-fated expedition to the East Indies, the Empire of Alexander, and the Indian account of the deluge, which are all touched with solemnity and interest.

In the fourth book, Commerce appears standing on the Pharos of Alexandria, and addressing the nations of the world. From the great maritime expeditions of antiquity, the poet passes to discoveries of more modern times, and bestows some appropriate lines on the voyage of Henry of Portugal. The circumstance of one of the ships having been driven by a storm to Madeira introduces a beautiful episode, founded on the romantic story of Robert a Machin. As a specimen of the tender and pathetic, in which Mr. Bowles seems formed to excell, we quote the following elegiac stanzas:

'INSCRIPTION.

'ANNA D'ARFET.

I.

"O'er my poor ANNA's lowly grave
No dirge shall sound, no knell shall ring,
But Angels, as the high pines wave,
Their half heard 'MISERERE' sing!

II.

"No flow'rs of transient bloom at eve
The maidens on the turf shall strew;
Nor sigh, as the sad spot they leave,
"SWEETS TO THE SWEET! A LONG ADIEU!"

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III.

"But in this wilderness profound,
O'er her the dove shall build her nest,
And ocean swell with softer sound
A REQUIEM to her dreams of rest!

IV.

"Ah! when shall I as quiet be,
When not a friend, or human eye,
Shall mark beneath the mossy tree
The spot where we forgotten lie.

V.

"To kiss her name on the cold stone,
Is all that now on earth I crave;
For in this world I am alone—
Oh lay me with her in the grave."

"Robert a Machin, 1344.—*Miserere nobis, Domine.*"

Wider views of discovery next open on the poet's vision; and he pays a passing tribute to the merits and misfortunes of Camoens, and to his faithful slave, Antonio. Columbus, the polarity of the needle, the discovery of America, some suitable reflections, and a short allusion to our circumnavigator, Drake, occupy the rest of the chapter.

Book V. is chiefly devoted to some of the misfortunes attendant on the progress of maritime discovery; particularly to the cruelties exercised on the natives by the first invaders of America, the crying evil of West Indian bondage, and the lamented fate of Cook, Peyrouse, and divers celebrated navigators. On these and other parts of his plan, Mr. Bowles might have safely enlarged: but even the fastidious will hardly deny that he has alluded to them with elegance and feeling.

'The poem (says Mr. B.) having thus gained a middle and an end, the conclusion of the whole is that, as the uncertainty in the physical world has been by DISCOVERY cleared up, so all the apparent contradictions in the moral world shall be reconciled. We have many existing evils to deplore; but when the SUPREME DISPOSER'S plan shall have been completed, THEN THE EARTH, which has been explored and enlightened by discovery and knowlege, shall be destroyed; but the MIND OF MAN, rendered at last perfect, shall endure through all ages, and "JUSTIFY HIS WAYS FROM WHOM IT SPRUNG."

Although the author be thus solicitous to vindicate his design and the distribution of his subject, the conduct of the poem is not distinguished by any skilful adaptation of parts, or beautiful concatenation of incidents. The same theme, in the hands of a bolder genius, would have called forth more exalted and more diversified strains: but Mr. Bowles has at least attained to a certain

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certain degree of amiable dignity, and to chaste, pathetic, tierce, and musical numbers.

The titles of the smaller pieces are, 'The Bells of Ostend,' 'Stormy Evening at Weymouth,' 'The Laplander's Song,' 'A beautiful Woman on the Citadel of Plymouth,' 'Lines on Falconer,' 'Stokes'-bay,' 'Epitaph on *** Walmesly, Esq.,' 'Epitaph on the Rev. John Honeywood,' 'Age,' 'On a young Woman, who died at eighteen, leaving an infant Child,' 'Rubens's Landscape,' 'On the harp and despair of Cowper,' and 'Prospero's Adieu to Ariel.'—Rubens's Landscape, which is the longest, was suggested by a picture in the possession of Sir George Beaumont. Its chief merit consists in describing, in pleasing blank verse, the great variety of objects delineated in the landscape.—The other minor compositions manifest a classical and refined taste. We select the verses on the beautiful woman on the citadel at Plymouth, 'returning, as the ship, in which her husband sailed, disappeared:'

I.

"I see the dim sail no more—
It is pass'd like the track of the wind;
And THOU mays't forget, on some far-sever'd shore,
The friend thou hast left behind.
But every warm blessing my soul can bestow,
Go with thee wide over the main;
And mays't thou—oh never—my wretchedness know,
Till we meet—meet in transport—again!

II.

"Thy voice—now I hear it no more—
That spoke so endearing and kind;
I hear but the sound of the surges that roar,
And the sea-bird that cries in the wind:
And cold hangs the evening, the rack hurries fast,
And wet is my hair with the rain;
O how many a night shall be heavily past,
Ere I rest on thy bosom again!

III.

"When darkness descends on the sea,
Wilt THOU to thy cabin retire,
And think with a tear of affection on me,
And my desolate evening fire?
How mournful, alas, will that evening low'r!
I shall watch, as it falls, the cold rain;
And count ev'ry night, ev'ry morn, ev'ry hour,
Till I rest on thy bosom again."

The handsome typography and embellishments of this little volume agreeably harmonize with the gracefulness of its composition; and the whole performance is creditable to the author's intimacy with the Muses.

ART.

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ART. XVI. *A Treatise on the Lues Bovilla, or Cow-Pox.* By Benjamin Moseley, M.D., Physician to the Royal Military Hospital of Chelsea, &c. 2d Edition, with considerable Additions. 8vo. pp. 142. 5s. sewed. Longman and Co. 1805.

THE respectable rank in the profession which Dr. Moseley holds, as Physician to a great national establishment, might justify much higher pretensions than such as are supported by the merits of the treatise before us. We have seldom seen a work which bore, more distinctly than the present, the stamp of an intemperate endeavour to carry beyond the reach of rational investigation, a subject of the highest importance to mankind; and we cannot sufficiently reprehend the disposition, which so universally appears through the whole of this performance, to impose on the judgment of the public, by the substitution of bold assertion and illiberal invective, for a candid and philosophical inquiry after truth. With those who have time and disposition to examine, this publication bears too many internal evidences of error to mislead: but where it is merely known that a Physician of standing and respectability comes forwards, with an appearance of candour, of zeal for the honour of his profession, and regard to the interests of the public, to stem the torrent of popular prepossession, by what are represented to be unquestionable facts and incontrovertible reasoning, it becomes the more necessary to put in a caveat, if there be any circumstances connected with his work which diminish our confidence in its accuracy.

In the very first page of the preface, we find an observation which gives no flattering idea of the author's judgment. He there tells us that it is his firm opinion 'that experience is not necessary to know, the cow-pox cannot be a preventive to the small-pox.—For on the principles of pathology, and analogy; from the laws of the animal œconomy, and the want of reciprocity between the two diseases, it is impossible to believe, without an entire subversion of our reason, that either should render the human frame unsusceptible of the other.' It requires but little philosophy to know that we are not intitled to infer any thing but from experience. Analogy is frequently delusive; it may be employed with caution in the absence of direct evidence: but it would be the height of extravagance to conceive that it can supersede fact, or render inquiry unnecessary. We presume that Dr. Moseley is not apprized of the nature of that constitutional change, which produces unsusceptibility to small-pox in those who have gone through that disease; and we take it for granted that he would hardly venture a conjecture on those minute differences in organization which

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which existed before and after its attack. Until he is able to inform us on these points, and to prove that the ultimate changes in organization, effected by small-pox and by cow-pox, are not the same, he will go but a little way in his attempt to interrupt vaccine inoculation, by any thing but an appeal to facts and experiments.

The Doctor is obliged to admit that cow pox lessens, for a time, the disposition to receive small-pox: but he says that in this it does no more 'than the Scaldhead; or a violent state of the Itch; or the Yaws; or the Leprosy; or the *Pustule Maligne;* or the temporary influence of any morbid inoculation from diseased animals; or the bites of venomous creatures; or wounds, that dissecters of dead bodies sometimes accidentally give themselves.' When we hear an *à priori* argument gravely employed against the possibility of cow-pox doing what it is pretended that it can effect, is it not fair to ask, what is the minute and essential difference between an action which produces a change of impression for a short time only, and that which keeps up the change for a long series of years, or for life? It will hardly be asserted that there is an affinity between small-pox, and any of those complaints which are enumerated as affording a temporary protection against it; nor is it at all necessary to concede that such affinity should also exist between that disease and cow-pox, in order to render the one a preventative of the other. Dr. Moseley is a friend to analogy: but, while he has recourse to it where it can have no place, he omits to apply it when he can do so with propriety. He tells us that he has the fullest conviction, that the quality of variolous matter used for inoculation will not influence the quality of the disease arising from it; and that, if a subject in the small-pox have 'inveterate Scurvy, Scrophula, Itch, Syphilitic infection, or Consumption, matter may be taken from it for inoculation, with as much safety as if none of these disorders had been present:' but what peculiarity can he prove in the case of the matter of cow-pox, to justify the supposition that this is not governed by similar laws with other animal poisons? As the idea which he entertains on this subject is repugnant to the usual course of nature, it may be justly retorted that it 'has been adopted in open defiance of every principle of pathology and of analogy in medicine.'

The author seems to be anxious to prove that vaccine inoculation teems with evils of every description. Its ravages are even not to be confined to the corporeal part, like those of its prototype of Pandora. This modern Prometheus hesitates at receiving the proffered gift on account of its bestial origin, and makes many amusing though indelicate allusions to the probable

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bable 'mutations' which may be produced on the human character, by 'quadrupedan sympathy.'

Dr. M. advises an anti-cowpox-author to 'imitate the alligator, on entering the lists; and to swallow a great deal of dirt before the combat, to enable him to sink his antagonist in the mud.' This piece of advice it might fairly be expected that he himself would practise, were it not readily discernible that it is unnecessary for the purpose of enabling him to cloud the elements of controversy; for his constant dread of the 'paroxysms of belluous fury,' produced by the 'brutal' influence of cow-pox, has given rise to such a sensorial fermentation, as we doubt not will be sufficient for all the purposes of contest, during the whole of a long protracted literary warfare.

Dr. Moseley asserts, with an imposing confidence, that none among the middle and inferior ranks of society in the metropolis, unless attacked by surprise or with threats, or cajoled by artifice, will now expose their children to cow-pox inoculation. What may have been the means employed by anti-vaccinists to stifle all inquiry into the nature and effects of cow-pox, we know not: but the insinuation here made is offensive and disgraceful, and it comes within our own knowlege to be able to contradict the unqualified assertion combined with it.

The whole of the 1st part of this treatise is occupied with general remarks on cow-pox, which are lively and amusing, though for the most part sarcastic and illiberal; with the evidence before a Committee of the House of Commons, of medical men on Dr. Jenner's petition; and with the history of the measures which have been adopted to bring vaccination into practice. The 2d part is intended to prove, 1st, that the cow-pox is not a security against the small-pox; 2dly, that the cow-pox gives rise to many serious complaints, which do not occur from variolous inoculation; and 3dly, that it does not afford any prospect of exterminating small-pox.

It does not belong to our province to examine into the accuracy of all the evidence stated respecting the occurrence of small-pox after cow-pox. Dr. Moseley mentions many cases of this kind, which it is not necessary to particularize; and he informs us that he has nearly 1000 instances more by him, of the mischief and failure of cow-pox, which he will take care shall be laid before the world.—Such a mass of evidence proves too much; and it must tend to affect the doubts of many who were even unbelievers in vaccination. To suppose that there is only one virtuous physician in the metropolis, who will step forwards as the champion of truth, and that there is a general system of fraud pursued by the profession in order to mislead, are opinions as singular as that it should have happened only to one

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one man, or set of men, to see instances of failure, which others have in vain tried to produce. When it is known that the individual who thus presents himself has been a decided enemy to vaccination from the commencement,—that he has condemned, as useless and absurd, any examination into its efficacy,—and that he has been anxious to vilify and decry it by every means in his power,—it may well be asked whether such a person, who does not, by his own admission, know any thing about cow-pox practically, has the common qualifications for examining into and collecting evidence on the subject? Would Dr. Moseley himself have been inclined to give implicit credit to the cases adduced by the furious opponents of variolous inoculation? and would he not rather have preferred the evidence of personal experience, and the testimony of men who, at least, carried with them the appearance of candour? Pertinacious opposition is always to be suspected; and we doubt even whether the delicate remedy for ophthalmia, mentioned in a note to page 86, and recommended for the committee who reported on the cases at Fullwood's Rents, would be able to clear the eyes of Dr. Moseley and his friends, sufficiently to capacitate them for accurate and dispassionate observation on the subject of cow-pox.

We have already made some remarks on the occurrence of small-pox after vaccine inoculation *, and the effects which this occurrence should have on the practice. To those, therefore, we shall refer our readers; only observing at present that, though we feel satisfied as to the general preventative powers of cow-pox, we by no means are of opinion that inquiry into the extent of it ought to be prevented. Let adverse cases be examined with attention and candour; and let it be the endeavour of medical men to discover what proportion the cases, in which small-pox occurs after cow-pox, bear to those in which small-pox appears a second time. The possibility of the latter is denied by the present author, but we believe it to be irrefragable. Dr. Moseley gives a long catalogue of evil consequences resulting from vaccine inoculation: but, from the cases which he adduces in support of them, he seems to us to ascribe to the effects of that practice every complaint which comes on within many months afterward. He appears to be easily satisfied with evidence of the inefficacy or danger of cow-pox, but sets at nought every document of an opposite nature. Death by cow-pox he mentions as a common event: but we cannot so readily forget the uniform mildness of its symptoms observed

* See the account of Mr. Goldson's pamphlet, M. R. for November last.

by

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by other practitioners, as to place any reliance on the unqualified expressions which the author employs to evince its malignity and danger.

We shall have occasion to mention, in another part of this number, the result of a few inquiries into the accuracy of Dr. Moseley's statements; and from these we are by no means inclined to consider his statements as possessing any claims to accuracy. We have no doubt that some friends to humanity will continue the investigation; in which, however, it is hardly necessary to do more than to shew in a few instances an inattention to correctness, in order to remove the impression which the other cases may effect.

It is matter of much regret to us that a physician, and a physician moving in a respectable sphere, should join with some of the lowest and most unworthy pretenders to medical character in an outcry against vaccination.—We are friends to discussion, and we think that manly opposition is to be encouraged as favourable to the discovery of truth: but the spirit uniformly shewn by Dr. Moseley on the subject of cow-pox is highly unworthy of him, and such as we hope he will in time blush to recollect.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For AUGUST, 1805.

MATHEMATICS, &c.

Art. 17. *Newton refuted.* A Geographical, Nautical, Mechanical, and Mathematical View of the Universe. By W. Parkes. 8vo. 3s. Robinsons.

THIS is another * attempt to shake the fabric of the Newtonian Philosophy,—the impulse of a fly against St. Paul's. This author, however, has not *half the stuff* in him that Mr. Cormouls displays, and scarcely whimsical absurdity enough to make us laugh; yet the concluding sentence of the following passage extorted a smile from us:

'Sir Isaac Newton, who lived in happier times, fell in love with and espoused this hypothesis; and he surpassed all the philosophers that were before him in labouring to establish the Pythagorean, or, as it was then called, the Copernican, system of Astronomy. To obtain this end, he exerted all his great abilities, and laboured with so much zeal and success, that he lived to see it received and countenanced by the greater part of the European and Christian philosophers; yet, to their eternal disgrace, it is not acknowledged by the Indian or heathen philosophers, neither is it practised by those who profess to believe it.'

* See p. 369 of this Review.

What

What will future enlightened ages think of those narrow-minded bigots, those persecutors, Professors Robinson and Hornsby?

'I have lately made an offer to the Vice-Chancellor Hornsby, and Profesor Robinson, at the University of Oxford, to reconcile these sciences, and make them coincide; but this proposal was rejected, and these gentlemen would neither hear themselves, nor suffer their students to attend a lecture on this grand national subject: what then must the reader think of these learned Professors, who set their faces against an improvement of such importance to our commerce, and to our national defence – the navy?'

The consummation of the overthrow of the Newtonian Philosophy takes place in this paraphrase:

> "Nature and Nature's laws of old were known
> Ere proud Philosophers had built their throne;
> God's holy truth shone forth divinely bright,
> Before great *Newton* flourish'd, - *there was light.*"

We now take our leave, in tolerably good humour; yet we cannot help suggesting to Mr. Parkes and his fellow-labourer in the same cause, that, when the fever of writing and refutation again comes on, some wholesome restraints might be applied by medical friends.

Art. 18. *A Collection of Mathematical Tables*, for the Use of Students in Universities and Academies, for the practical Navigator, Geographer, and Surveyor, for Men of Business, &c. By Andrew Mackay, LL.D. F.R.S. Edinb. 8vo. 7s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1804.

We consider this as a most capital collection of useful tables; the number of them being 93, and the price, as it appears to us, very moderate. No doubt, the utility of this volume will depend on the accuracy of the individual tables; and it is impossible for us to speak to this point: but the author, in his preface, says that very great attention has been paid to the correction of the press. Among other tables, we notice one for converting common logarithms into hyperbolic, and conversely: this is an useful table: such an one is inserted in Callet's Tables of Logarithms, but we do not recollect to have met with it in any of our English publications.—To the tables, an introductory explanation is prefixed.

Art. 19. *The Description and Use of the Sliding Gunter in Navigation.* By Andrew Mackay, LL.D. F.R.S. Edinb. 8vo. 4s. 6d. Boards. White, &c.

This is a very good description of a most useful instrument, especially when great accuracy is not required. Subjoined is the description of another Scale, called *the Maritime Scale.*

Art. 20. *On the Modifications of Clouds*, and on the Principles of their Production, Suspension, and Destruction: being the Substance of an Essay read before the Askesian Society in the Session 1802, 1803. By Luke Howard, Esq. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Arch.

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We meet in this essay with little that is new, except Latin class-names for clouds under their different modifications. There is surely something of ludicrous importance in classifying and defining, with Linnéan formality, and in choice Latin, the tribe of clouds, of which the varieties are only seven. In the author's philosophy, we do not find much that calls for remark.

Art. 21. *A Map illustrative of the Changes of the Planet Venus*, in respect to her apparent Situation in the Heavens (as seen from the Earth) East or West of the Sun; and whereby she becomes successively an Evening and a Morning Star. 8vo. 1s. Allen.

We are at a loss to imagine a reasonable pretext for the appearance of this map. A person might, with equal grounds of propriety, select from some book on Astronomy, an Account and Explanation of the Lunar Phases.

Art. 22. *Six Lectures on the Principles and Practice of Perspective*, as applicable to Drawing from Nature, accompanied with a Mechanical Apparatus. By John George Wood. 4to. pp. 77. and separate Apparatus. 1l. 15s. Boards. Faulders.

The chief difficulty of demonstrating the Rules of Perspective consists in this, that diagrams inadequately represent solid bodies; and we think that, in a theoretical treatise of perspective, schemes made of pasteboard, of three dimensions, might be introduced with great advantage to the Student. The intention of the author of this treatise is not, however, to demonstrate the Rules of Perspective geometrically, but to teach the rules practically; and to make the reason of such rules, by the aid of an apparatus, sensible and apparent. This plan of practically teaching Perspective strikes us as eligible; and it appears to us that the examples in the present apparatus may be of more use than a hundred examples given on a plane. The machinery is simple, but, for obvious reasons, we do not undertake to describe it. Considering the price of the whole, however, we apprehend that the author might have afforded an apparatus of better workmanship.

As we have already mentioned, this work is not designed for those who wish to study Perspective mathematically: the author indeed frequently talks of proof and demonstration, but goes no farther in this arduous line, than by desiring the reader to look through the eye-hole of his machinery, or to trace a figure with chalk on the blank glass.

We cannot quit this subject without making two observations: 1st, that writers on Perspective, by multiplied examples, curious cases, and fine engravings, give a price to their works beyond all measure and propriety; and secondly, that they exalt too highly the practical utility of their art. The Architectural Designer ought to know Perspective in all its niceties: but, in Painting, extreme exactness in delineation is not required: the former represents objects on a plane, knowing their shape and their situation with respect to the plane: the painter represents objects as they appear to him, and is regardless whether the round figure before his eye be, by mensuration, an exact circle or not.

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MEDICAL.

Art. 23. *Observations on some late Attempts to depreciate the Value and Efficacy of Vaccine Inoculation.* By Samuel Merriman. 8vo. pp. 35. 1s. 6d. Murray. 1805.

In this judicious and well-written pamphlet, the author not only combats with force and success much of Dr. Moseley's reasoning against the propriety of vaccine inoculation *, but shews that, in some cases into which inquiry has been made, Dr. M. has not been correct in his statement of facts. The following observations are intended to contradict an insinuation which it has been attempted to enforce, that some interested motive is at the bottom of every endeavour to promote and extend the practice of vaccine inoculation:

'Nothing is more clearly demonstrable than the contrary. Every medical man, who practises or recommends Vaccination, is a loser by his philanthrophy. Exclusive of the very great number of persons whose children have been vaccinated gratuitously, (and among them are many who used to pay for variolous inoculation) those, who formerly gave large fees, give now much smaller ones, and among the middling classes, the fee is generally diminished one half: - add to this, that the diffusion of the Small Pox by contagion, a very considerable source of profit, is almost at an end. These severe losses are, however submitted to without a murmur, by a very great majority of practitioners, who, to their honor be it spoken, suffer not the desire of gain to prevail over the dictates of their conscience, and the desire of doing good. Can the opposers of Vaccination lay their hands on their hearts, and declare that they are influenced by the same honest motives?'

Mr. M. compares the opposition made to variolous with that which was made to vaccine inoculation; and he shews that the same objections of inefficacy and constitutional injury were as violently urged by those who resisted the introduction of the former, as they now are by those who oppose the latter practice. 'Notwithstanding, however, the decided opposition which was so steadily made to the progress of Inoculation,—notwithstanding the adverse cases which were published and reported against it, the intrinsic value of the practice, and its generally successful issue, caused it at last to obtain universal approbation. The Wagstaffe's the Massey's, and the Howgrave's died and were forgotten; their works are only remembered as examples of illiberality, casuistry, and prejudice.'

We consider this pamphlet as well worth the perusal of our readers; and we shall conclude our notice of it, by giving the author's own account of his inquiries relating to one or two cases mentioned by Dr. Moseley; which amply justifies the conclusion that the Doctor has attended much more to the quantity than the quality of his evidence. One of the cases is that of a child 6 years old, who was inoculated with vaccine matter by Mr. King, and had the cow-pox in May 1800, but is stated to have had the small-pox in the natural way, nine months afterward. The result of an examination of the parents, by Mr. Merriman, accompanied by a friend, is as follows:

* See p. 427 of this Number.

'That

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'That the boy was inoculated for the Cow Pox by Mr. Ring; that some months after, the exact time the mother cannot recollect, he had, what *she* thought, the Small Pox. That she shewed the child, whilst under the eruption, to Mr. Leighton, Surgeon, of Welbeck Street, and Mr. Draper, Apothecary, of Bulstrode Street, Marylebone; who both declared that the eruption was the *chicken pox*; that they both saw it when it was at or near the height; that Dr. Moseley did not see the child during the time of the eruption, nor did any other medical man, except those above mentioned; that a gentleman, who she supposes was Dr. Moseley, came to her about two or three months ago, and inquired if her child had not had the Small Pox after Vaccination, to which she replied she thought he had; Dr. Moseley, *without making any inquiry into particulars*, said, there was no doubt about it. She further said, that the eruption continued out only a few days, *she is positive not a week*, and she believes the eruption was dried away at the end of five days at the farthest.

'There are very visible on the breast several marks left by this eruption.'

As an instance of the disadvantages produced on the constitution by cow pox, Dr. Moseley states that the elder son of Mr. Englefield, of Kentish Town, who had been vaccinated by Mr. Sandys, 'soon after the inoculation, broke out in violent ulcerations, and died in a miserable manner.' Mr. Merriman informs us that he is authorized by Mr. Sandys to contradict this report: 'Mr. Sandys (says he) stated to me expressly, that the elder child, as well as his brother, recovered perfectly from the Vaccination; that a slight eruption on the skin, altogether distinct from and independent of the Cow-pox, afterwards appeared, but that there was nothing at all uncommon or alarming in this eruption; that about three months after being vaccinated, the eldest son was attacked with a peripneumony, of which he died.'

Art. 24. *Observations addressed to the Public in general on the Cow-Pox*, shewing that it originates in Scrophula, commonly called the Evil; illustrated with Cases to prove that it is no Security against the Small-Pox. Also pointing out the dreadful Consequences of this new Disease, so recently and rashly introduced into the human Constitution. To which are added, Observations on the Small-Pox Inoculation, proving it to be more beneficial to Society than the Vaccine. By R. Squirrell, M. D. formerly resident Apothecary to the Small Pox and Inoculation Hospital. 8vo. pp. 75. 2s. 6d. Highley.

On reading the title page of this work, we expected to have found it the vehicle of some empirical nostrum; and we think that the author has exercised a great degree of forbearance, in withholding for the space of 75 pages, the recommendation of some of his celebrated medicines. The attention of the public is arrested in every part of the town with the author's advertisements, of formidable magnitude: and we have only to observe of this pamphlet, that it does not disgrace the mode adopted by him for giving it publicity.

Art. 25. *A Letter to Wm. Wilberforce, Esq. M. P. &c. &c. &c.* by Jas. Carmichael Smyth, M. D. containing Remarks on a Pamphlet,

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entitled an Account of the Discovery of the Power of Mineral Acid Vapours to destroy Contagion, by John Johnstone, M. D. published in London in 1803. 8vo. pp. 34. 1s. Callow. 1805.

Dr. Johnstone's pamphlet was intended to invalidate both Dr. Smith's and Mr. Morvean's claim to the discovery of the efficacy of mineral acid vapour in destroying contagion; and to substantiate that of his father, who mentioned the use of the vapour of muriatic acid so early as the year 1758, and was afterward in the habit of recommending it for the cure of fever. Dr. Smyth here vindicates his right to the discovery of the efficacy of nitrous vapour, and contends that there is no reason for considering Dr. Johnstone, sen. as the first person who was in the habit of employing the vapour of muriatic acid to destroy contagion.

From the remarks made by Dr. John Johnstone, in the pamphlet to which this is an answer, we were disposed to consider the claim of his father to the discovery of the effects of muriatic vapour as substantiated; and still it appears that the employment of that vapour, in fever rooms, was mentioned by Dr. Johnstone, sen. so early as the year 1758. There does not, however, seem to be any reason for supposing that Dr. Johnstone had been much accustomed to use it, nor that he placed any great dependence on it; much less that he had, as his son states, 'acquired eminence by the discovery of a certain method of destroying infection, which could be used with perfect convenience in the apartments of the sick.' The passage relating to this subject, in Dr. Johnstone's original work, is as follows. After having mentioned the use of myrrh, amber, benzoin, camphire, and vinegar, he adds:

"These are the *most commodious, if not the most useful methods of medicating* the air *the patient breathes*; however, *those who prefer the mineral acids, may order brimstone to be burnt,* or *may raise the marine acids very easily,* by putting a certain quantity of common salt into a vessel, kept heated on a chaffing dish of coals; if to this a small quantity of oil of vitriol is from time to time added, the air will be filled with a thick white acid steam; but both *the marine and sulphureous acids must be disengaged at a considerable distance from the patient, otherwise their extreme pungency will be offensive to the lungs.*"

Dr. Johnstone's mode of recommending muriatic fumigation is very equivocal; and, unless there was evidence of his having afterward employed it with freedom, little can be inferred with regard to his opinion of its efficacy. Dr. Smyth throws some blame on Dr. J. jun. for asserting that his father represented the evolution of muriatic acid fumes from common salt as the *most effectual* mode of freeing the air from putrefaction; whereas it certainly does appear, in the original work, that the circumstance is mentioned as a matter on which little stress is laid. Dr. Smyth informs us that, in the rules for avoiding the influence of contagion given by Dr. Johnstone, sen. in the same work from which the above extract is made, no notice is taken of the mineral acids; which notice he thinks would have occurred, if they had possessed that share of his good opinion which his son would intimate. Another circumstance, too, Dr. Smyth states as deserving

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remark, viz. that Dr. James Johnstone, (another son of Dr. Johnstone) who published a Thesis on Angina Maligna in the year 1773, says nothing of the use of the muriatic acid, though that thesis was admitted to have been written under the immediate inspection of his father.

The author seems rather to quibble on the words *order* and *recommend*, when he represents it as a great want of candour in Dr. Johnstone to employ the latter term, instead of the former, in speaking of the use which his father made of the marine-acid-vapour in his practice. However great be the difference in meaning between the two words, it is at least certain that they are not unfrequently employed by medical men as synonimes; and that a man never *orders*, or at least ought never to order, what he cannot *recommend*.

On the whole, though the use of the marine-acid-vapour was noticed in the year 1758 by Dr. Johnstone, sen. there seems to be no reason for concluding that he considered it as a certain method of destroying infection, or that he was much in the habit of employing it; and the practice might have been lost, but for the attention drawn to it by M. Morveau.—With regard to the claims which Dr. Smyth possesses to public gratitude, for the use of nitrous-acid vapour as a destroyer of contagion, instead of that of muriatic acid, it by no means appears to us that the transition from the one to the other affords any well-founded pretensions to originality.

Art. 26. *The Lectures of Boyer on the Diseases of the Bones*, arranged into a systematic Treatise, by A. Richerand, Professor of Anatomy and Philosophy, and Principal Surgeon to the Northern Hospital at Paris. Translated from the French by M. Farrell, M. D. 8vo. 2 Vols. 15s. Boards. Murray.

As far as we have compared this translation with the original, it seems to be executed with care and fidelity. We have lately had occasion to give our opinion on the merits of the Lectures *, and have nothing farther to add on the subject at present.

Art. 27. *Transactions of the Perkinean Society*, consisting of a Report on the Practice with the Metallic Tractors, at the Institution in Frith-Street, and Experiments communicated by several Correspondents. Published by the Committee. 12mo. 1s. Johnson. 1804.

Perkinism seems to be much indebted to clergymen; since, of ten correspondents whose communications are here inserted to record the value of the practice, one half are gentlemen of the cloth. The committee are, however, armed at all points; for, of the remaining five, three are medical gentlemen, *retired from practice*, who are professed to have been regularly educated, and must therefore be supposed to observe with precision and report with accuracy. Some of the cases adduced by the latter are rather too favourable; and we doubt whether Mr. Perkins himself (unless he has disposed of his patent,) would, for the credit of his tractors, wish to see many instances recorded of total blindness produced by small pox, and existing several years, so

* Rev. Vol. xliv. N. S. *Appendix*.

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much removed by the tractors in the course of 25 minutes, as to allow the patient to see surrounding objects; and perfectly cured in three weeks. We shall expect in time to hear that the Promethean effects of Perkinism will not only heal the maimed, the halt, and the blind, but impart a vital energy to a wooden leg, or a glass eye.

Art. 28. *A Conspectus of the London and Edinburgh Pharmacopeias*, &c. By Robt. Graves, M.D. F.L.S. &c. Third Edition, corrected, and adapted to the last improved Editions of the Colleges. 12mo. pp. 112. 3s. 6d. sewed. Highley.

The first edition of this little work was noticed with approbation soon after its appearance, in our 21st Vol. N. S. p. 95. In the present, the author has availed himself, in many instances, of additional information on the use of medicines, and has supplied such as have since been inserted in the last edition of the Edinburgh Pharmacopœia. The revolution, which has taken place in the nomenclature of the latter, prevents it from assimilating, so well as formerly, with the Dispensatory of the London College; and indeed it is to be regretted that the two Colleges should not act in some degree in concert, and thus prevent the embarrassment produced by the difference of synonimes now existing. Dr. Graves has annexed a table which gives the new nomenclature of the Edinburgh College.

Art. 29. *An Essay upon Pestilential Diseases;* such as the Putrid, Malignant, and Yellow Fevers, and the Plague, &c. &c. By James Rymer, Surgeon, R. N. 8vo. pp. 56. 2s. Highley. 1805.

The burthen of this song is, that Mr. Rymer is the inventor and proprietor of the *Nervous and Cardiac Tincture*, which is sold at a guinea per bottle, is a preventative and curer of infectious fevers, is a powerful tonic and antiseptic, and is at the same time gently aperient.

POLITICAL.

Art. 30. *A Sketch of the present State of France.* By an Englishman, who escaped from Paris in the Month of May last. 8vo. 3s. 6d. sewed. R. Phillips. 1805.

With all true Britons, we should rejoice in the authentication of many of the statements exhibited in this view of France; but, as we cannot yield to the weakness of suffering our wishes to sway our judgment, we must require better evidence for the facts here recorded, before we can receive them with confidence. Though such accounts as that now before us be detailed with a patriotic motive, we doubt whether vilifying representations of the enemy, and degrading estimates of his resources, are calculated to serve any good purpose. These may indeed contribute for the present to elevate our hopes, and to assuage our fears: but truth is ultimately preferable to deception; and, while miserable must be the situation of that country which is forced to resort for comfort to misrepresentation and exaggeration, still more miserable will ultimately be its fate. We hope that Great Britain is not arrived at such an alarming crisis as to require any means to be employed against our inveterate enemy, but those

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those which are perfectly honourable; and we should be sorry to give him any just ground for reproaching our political writers with preparing Sketches of France, which are merely calculated to gull poor John Bull. The English gentleman, who is the author of the pamphlet before us, has no doubt been in the situation which he describes, has enjoyed a recent opportunity of surveying the French metropolis, and is capable of affording several amusing details: but we think that he has ventured to pronounce in matters respecting which it was impossible for him to obtain evidence, and has permitted his zeal to master his discretion. The tyranny of Bonaparte, and his hostility to liberty, require no proof; his measures for attaining the elevation which he has reached may be odious to the majority of the French: but it is impossible for an Englishman, who was a prisoner in Paris, to know that, 'almost to a man, the army felt a repugnance of horror at the Corsican's elevation of himself to the imperial dignity;' and it is difficult to believe, if such were the almost universal sentiment of the army, how this measure could have been accomplished. If Bonaparte's power be so tremendous as it is here stated to be, (and we do not question the fact of his despotism,) we can as little believe that any French physician, unless *his* brain were turned, would venture to assert that 'the giddy summit which he (Bonaparte) has attained, has turned his brain;' or that 'his coachmaker should refuse to deliver the imperial carriage till paid for;' and that the person who furnished the embroidery of the throne, on the ceremony of the coronation, has been ruined by non-payment. After a picture of the misery of France, arising from the tyranny of its present ruler, we are comforted by the assurance that the war with England is unpopular, that French soldiers will not now fight as they did for liberty and their country, and that the scheme of invasion is thought by the Generals and Admirals of Bonaparte to be impracticable.

Art. 31. *Observations on the Operations of the New Corn Bill*, with a few salutary Hints to the Promoters of that impolitic Measure, humbly dedicated to the President of the Board of Agriculture, and most earnestly recommended to the Attention of both Houses of Parliament. By William Curtis. 8vo. 1s. Jordan and Co.

Plausible reasons were urged by the farmers for the New Corn Bill; and motives of a powerful nature operated with gentlemen of landed property, in making them friendly to the measure: but how far this law is likely to be generally beneficial, is a question that admits of dispute. The policy of the interference of the legislature, on occasions of this kind, may be fairly questioned; since it is an allowed principle that all articles brought to market should be suffered to find their own level, and that no law of *maximum* or *minimum* should interfere between the buyer and the seller. In markets, a continual action and re-action must prevail; the operation of which will better regulate all the circumstances relative to commercial articles, than any enactments of parliament. Is corn an exception to this rule? Perhaps not: but, supposing that it is, the next inquiry that presents itself is, Were sufficient reasons adduced for altering

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the former regulations for opening and shutting the ports, and for securing to the farmer a higher price for the article which he grows? Mr. Curtis argues that there were no justifiable grounds for the measure; that the statements presented to parliament were fallacious; that the new corn act is as injurious to the farmer's interest, as it is oppressive to the middling and lower classes of the community. and that nothing short of its immediate repeal can avert the most serious consequences As soon as the measure was known to be settled, prices rose, and have continued to rise: but, as other causes have contributed their aid to this effect, we will not accuse it of the whole amount of the evil, by positively saying *post hoc ergo propter hoc*, though the intention of the bill is very manifest.

RELIGIOUS.

Art. 32. *An Address to Lord Teignmouth*, President of the British and Foreign Bible Society, occasioned by his Address to the Clergy of the Church of England. By a Country Clergyman. 8vo. 1s. Rivingtons.

Art. 33. *A Letter to a Country Clergyman*, occasioned by his Address to Lord Teignmouth, President of the British and Foreign Bible Society. By a Sub-urban Clergyman. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Hatchard.

'The Bible, the Bible,' says Chillingworth, 'is the religion of Protestants.' To this sacred book, controversial writers of every protestant communion universally make their appeal; regarding the scriptures as decisive evidence in all matters of faith and practice. If, then, there be one measure which promises more than another to bring the members of discordant churches to act with unanimity and concert, it must surely be a scheme for the distribution of bibles; by the advancement of which plan, the conscientious of every denomination would predict the diffusion of their own tenets and the prosperity of their own church. Such, however, are the 'hatred, and uncharitableness' which the amiable and peace-inspiring religion of Christ unaccountably generates in some bosoms, that they will not act in concert with their fellow-christians, even in a plan which has for its *sole* object the distribution of the scriptures. A clergyman, forsooth, protests with zeal and vehemence against the Society of which Lord Teignmouth is president, and is filled with the most alarming apprehensions for the fate of the established church. No Romish priest could have his imagination more disturbed. The object of this society is in his eyes of a very dangerous nature; it is an insidious mode of 'blowing up the church,' of introducing wolves who will 'eat us up both sheep and shepherd'; 'Supply these men (sectaries) with bibles, and you supply them with arms against yourselves.' Ld T., who is accused of *unintentionally* betraying the church, is intreated not 'to lead the clergy into temptation,' nor to require them to be accessaries 'in sowing tares in the church of God.'

We must confess that we perused the country clergyman's address with some surprise, and with more concern. We lamented the temper

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temper in which it was written, and the unchristian spirit which it was calculated to promote. What! can a clergyman belonging to the first of the reformed churches glory in narrowness and illiberality: can he be a prey to such imbecile timidity, as to suspect danger from the mere dissemination of the Scriptures? Can he more effectually degrade his own cause, and afford the nonconformist better ground of triumph, than by telling him that, if he be supplied with the Bible, he is supplied with arms against the church? If this be true, it is in vain to boast that the gates of nonconformity can never prevail against her.

With sentiments in perfect accordance with our own, the sub-urban clergyman replies to the author of the address; whose prejudices and fears call forth his pleasantry, rather than his severity. The sub-urban is truly liberal and enlightened. He disclaims those apprehensions which his country brother entertains, from a coalition between churchmen and dissenters for the dissemination of the Scriptures. He professes himself friendly to every measure which tends to diffuse truth and charity; replies in the most satisfactory manner to every objection in the Address; and hopes that the intercourse between persons of different religious persuasions, which the Bible Society promotes, will operate by a kind of mental friction to wear away the asperities of all parties. The perusal of his pamphlet amply remunerated us for the disgust produced by the Country Clergyman's Address.

Art. 34. *Sermons: chiefly occasional, on important Subjects.* By Samuel Martin, D. D. Minister of Monimail. 8vo. pp. 420. 7s. 6d. boards. Longman and Co.

The ingenuity of man is scarcely in any thing more apparent than in the discovery of expedients to conceal his vanity, or his private motives. Here, respect for the deceased Earl and Countess of Leven is urged as the reason for this publication; for Dr. Martin, having preached two sermons on the interment of the Earl and his Lady, was not satisfied with publishing them alone, but, supposing that a portly volume would be a more conspicuous testimony of his gratitude and esteem than a mere brace of discourses, he has prepared a selection of such as 'he hopes will accord with those which are funeral, and their accompaniments.' On this principle, instead of an octavo volume, he might have published a quarto; instead of a quarto, a ponderous folio. The public will not enter into personal feelings on this occasion, but will appreciate the merit of the preacher independently of parochial considerations; and if they decide on this ground, we apprehend that Dr. Martin will not obtain sufficient praise to "lap him in elysium."

The titles of these sermons are—the Memory of the Righteous—Praise of female Piety—the Preservation and Transmission of the Scriptures—Attachment to the Church of Scotland—the Enemies of the Gospel objects of abhorrence—Infidels an untoward generation—Tranquillity amidst wars and rumours of wars—Perfection and felicity of the heavenly state. We are too dull to perceive the accordance of some of these subjects with funereal consolations: but we

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we should regard this circumstance as of little importance, if the discussions were managed with strength and judgment. Instead of this, we discover a prolixity, and an unmeaning splitting and dividing of common thoughts, which must be very fatiguing to the reader. We need not go beyond the first sermon for a specimen. Having chosen for his text Ps. cxii. 6. Dr. M. first considers the claims of the righteous to an honoured name; secondly, he adverts to the *perpetuity* of their fame; he then, thirdly, exhorts his hearers to preserve the memory of the righteous; and, fourthly, he gives directions for keeping them in *everlasting remembrance*. As if this tautology was not sufficient, when he proceeds to examine the claims of the righteous, he summonses his hearers to travel over the long and delightful field that is open before them, and invites them to consider 'the state and workings of the heart of the righteous, and his amiable and worthy affections and dispositions,' as if the workings of a good man's heart and his affections and dispositions were distinct matters. We are partial to arrangement, but not to unnecessary and unmeaning divisions. After many tiresome repetitions on the claims of the righteous to lasting fame, the preacher concludes with saying, 'The Earl of Leven and Melville is the Man.'—The second sermon on the interment of the Countess is divided after the same manner. On the whole, without descending to farther particulars, we may pronounce Dr. Martin to be a writer who is very partial to the figure called Amplification.

HORTICULTURE.

Art. 35. *The Report of a Committee of the Horticultural Society of London*, drawn up at their Request by T. A. Knight, Esq., and ordered to be immediately published by the Council. 4to Pamphlet. Printed for the Society.

We take this opportunity of announcing the formation of a Society, which has for its object the improvement of the culture of fruit trees and esculent vegetables; and we have no doubt that the remarks of so investigating and judicious a naturalist as Mr. T. Andrew Knight, in this concise Prospectus, will serve to direct the attention of country gentlemen to the laudable views of this Institution. When we consider the effects of human genius and industry in the cultivation of the earth in general, and in the conversion of the Crab and the Sloe into the Green Gage and Golden Pippen in particular, we have reason for believing that the Science of Horticulture is capable of very extensive improvements, and that there are many plants which have not yet attained perfection.

The method of naturalizing plants has not perhaps been sufficiently studied, and we have generally left to the routine of the gardener a field of investigation which demands the thoughts of the acutest philosophers. Mr. K. himself has thrown out many hints which merit attention in this line of inquiry, and of which, we trust, the members of this Society will avail themselves. We will not venture to assert that 'the Vine and the Peach tree *may* be made to adapt their habits to our climate, and to ripen their fruits without the aid of artificial heat, or the reflection of a wall:' but we wish to have judicious and well conducted

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ducted experiments made for the purpose of ascertaining how far this object might be accomplished; and it is reasonable to believe that trials of this sort must be made with plants raised from seeds, and not obtained by layers, budding, or grafting. Mr. K. observes,

'Almost every plant, the existence of which is not confined to a single summer, admits of two modes of propagation, by Division of its Parts, and by Seed. By the first of these methods, we are enabled to multiply an individual into many; each of which, in its leaves, its flowers, and fruit, permanently retains, in every respect, the character of the parent stock. No new life is here generated; and the graft, the layer, and cutting, appear to possess the youth and vigour, or the age and debility of the plant, of which they once formed a part.* No permanent improvement has therefore ever been derived, or can be expected, from the art of the Grafter, or the choice of stocks of different species, or varieties; for, to use the phrase of Lord Bacon, the Graft in all cases *overruleth the Stock*, from which it receives *aliment, but no motion*. Seedling plants, on the contrary, of every cultivated species, sport in endless variety. By selection from these, therefore, we can only hope for success in our pursuit of new and improved varieties of each species of plant or fruit; and to promote experiments of this kind, the Horticultural Society propose to give some Honorary Premiums to those who shall produce before them, or such persons as they shall appoint, valuable new varieties of fruit, which, having been raised from seeds, have come into existence since the establishment of the Istitution.'

In the training of Wall Trees, in the construction of Forcing-Houses, in the application of Manure, in the adaptation of fruits to the soil, &c. a wide field is thought to be open to improvements; and we sincerely hope that the Horticultural Society will be extensively patronized, and crowned with abundant success.

POETRY.

Art. 36. *The Pleasures of Composition*. A Poem, in Two Parts. Part I. 8vo. pp. 60. 2s. 6d. sewed. Hatchard. 1804.

Titles, like countenances, are often fallacious. The first glance at this handsomely printed pamphlet led us to expect that, in this age so fruitful of poetic 'Pleasures', we were at length to be gratified with the 'Pleasures' of *Writing*; and that, in course, the sweets of our critical labours would be celebrated in song. A whole page of argument, however, quickly undeceived us, and excited our surprize that the author should skim over the extensive field which lay before him in 458 lines. It is true that some of them are Alexandrines, and that the meaning is often explained in the notes. We are also assured that the unpublished half, in which the writer will naturally 'feel himself more confident of his own judgment, will be voluminous'.—If we rightly guess, his design is to sketch the pleasures which are afforded

* The diseased state of young grafted trees of the *Golden Pippin*, and the debasement of the flavour of that fruit, afford one, amongst a thousand instances which may be adduced, of the decay of those varieties of fruit which have been long propagated by grafting, &c.'

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to others from the influence of composition in the fine arts. At least the Poem commences with an invocation to Composition; who is distinctly personified, and then addressed as a principle progressively affecting Poetry, Music, Sculpture, and Painting. The praise of the last mentioned art, its revival in Italy, characteristic traits of celebrated pencils, the durable nature of the works of sculpture, the Venus de Medicis, the groupe of Laocoon, the patriotic influence of monumental sculpture, the science of medals, Grecian and Gothic architecture, the history and power of music, &c. are successively introduced as topics, on which this anonymous nursling of the muses touches with astonishing rapidity, and with no contemptible powers of versification. His chief defects are the abruptness of his transitions, and the want of rich imagery and affecting incidents. His meaning, too, is sometimes dark. Thus,

> 'Thrice happy Art! which to the visual ray
> Presents the image, years had worn away;
> Or mix'd with dust, or exil'd to the Pole,
> Love to revive, or sorrow to control,
> Celestial PAINTING!'

Again,

> 'By moderns held a monumental Art,
> Still SCULPTURE's orb shall setting lustres dart:
> The patriot's statue in the forum plac'd,
> Whose base his dying conqu'ror once embrac'd,
> Nor waits till death his station shall assign,
> A nation's tribute to her Chatham's shrine!'

The verse

> 'With POLYCLETUS' ease, or *Cteşilas'* air divine'

will not easily be matched for its harsh and cumbersome structure. The following lines will exemplify the author's best manner.

> 'Still from the Nile the Pyramid ascends,
> And o'er the waste, his giant shadow bends.
> An useless mass—on Art no light which throws—
> As rock-bound Cunha sleeps in dread repose,
> Nor stream nor port affords, to cheer the sailor's woes!
> 'Not such the edifice, which Christians raise
> With fond devotion to Jehovah's praise.
> When the great MASTER swell'd the cloud-capt dome,
> That emulates the pride of Pagan Rome;
> A new creation started from the dust,
> Colossal Columns, with proportions just;
> Egyptian bulk by Attic taste refin'd,
> Which strength and use and majesty combin'd.'

This little effusion is the production of a scholar and an *amateur*: We heartly wish him much success in the prosecution of his plan.

EDUCATION.

Art. 37. *A System of Geography*, with a Series of Geographical Examinations. By John Holland. 12mo. 2s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co.

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The former part of this treatise contains a delineation of the modern divisions of the known world, with questions subjoined, to recall the several particulars to the pupil's memory. The latter part follows a similar mode with respect to antient Geography, and is borrowed in a great measure from Adams's Summary.—In order to be concise, much is necessarily omitted in the system, which is nevertheless worthy to be known: but, as far as it goes, we approve this little work as an outline for beginners. By the aid of good maps, it will enable them to form in their minds an accurate ground-work of geography, and to proceed with facility to the more advanced stages of the science.

Art. 38. *Newbery's Geography made easy for Children.* With a short and familiar Account of the principal new Discoveries. From the *Circle of the Sciences*, by John Newbery. 3d Edition improved, &c. &c. 12mo. 3s. Darton and Harvey.

This is a very neat volume, and has the advantage of several small maps. It contains more information than the preceding work, in regard to the history and natural productions of different countries: but yet we are inclined to believe that Mr. Holland's treatise which may appear rather less inviting, is better calculated as a *grammar* of geography, to which this may be properly united as an useful accompanyment.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 39. *A Walk through Leicester;* being a Guide to Strangers, containing a Description of the Town and its Environs, with Remarks upon its History and Antiquities. Crown 8vo. 3s. 6d. Hurst. 1804.

This *cicerone* of the respectable and (as it is termed in the dedication) *honourable* town of Leicester has performed the task in a manner which will be satisfactory to the tourist and traveller. The dedication is expressed in the masculine gender, but we understand that it is a lady who thus officiates as guide, and who conducts the stranger to every object that merits notice in the place; introducing as much antiquity as the occasion requires, and dispersing such pertinent remarks and reflections as must serve to render the walk both improving and amusing.

The topographer is apt to be fascinated with antiquity: but the present author, not seduced into this weakness by her researches, regards the glance at past ages as a moral study, which should excite not only satisfaction but gratitude. The traveller is here informed that Leicester (a word derived from *castrum*, or *cester*, from its having been a Roman military station; and *leag* or *lea*, a pasture surrounded by woods) was an establishment of the Romans, and known to them by the name of *Ratæ*, as is evident from a *milliare* or Roman mile stone discovered in the year 1771 on the foss road leading to Newark at the distance of two miles from Leicester. This stone, which now forms part of a small obelisk, standing in one of the streets, and is supposed to be the oldest milliare now extant in Britain, contains an inscription concluding with the words *A Ratis II. i. e.* "From Ratæ

(Leicester)

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(Leicester) 2 miles." The state of Leicester, among the Romans, it is impossible now to ascertain: but, under our early kings, it was a place of some note: and its present consequence may be inferred from its population, which consists of 16,000 inhabitants. When we visit Leicester, we shall gladly avail ourselves of the hints which are here offered for regularly conducting the stranger to the several objects which particularly deserve his attention: but we may be excused from taking the walk here prescribed in our great chair. Instead of enumerating the list of places and curiosities, we shall transcribe the sensible reflections which are suggested by the destruction of the baronial old castles, and the erection of corporations:

'Though the Antiquary may in the eagerness of his curiosity lament that so little of the Castle now remains, yet he must surely rejoice in his reflecting moments that such structures are not now necessary for the defence of the kingdom, and that the fortunes of the noblemen are now spent in a way calculated to encourage the arts and promote industry, rather than in maintaining in these castles a set of idle retainers, ever ready to assist them in disturbing the peace of the realm, and still more ready to insult and injure the humble inhabitants in their neighbourhood.'—

'By forming cities and towns into corporations, and conferring on them the privileges of municipal jurisdiction, the first check was given to the overwhelming evils of the feudal system; and under their influence, freedom and independence began to peep forth from amid the rigours of slavery and the miseries of oppression.

'To be free of any corporation was not then, as at present, merely to enjoy some privileges in trade or to exercise the right of voting on particular occasions, but it was to be exempt from the hardships of feudal service; to have the right of disposing both of person and property, and to be governed by laws intended to promote the general good, and not to gratify the ambition and avarice of individuals. These laws, however rude and imperfect, tended to afford security to property, and encourage men to habits of industry. Thus commerce, with every ornamental and useful art, began first in corporate bodies to animate society. But in those dark ages, force was necessary to defend the claims of industry; and such a force these municipal societies possessed; for their towns were not only defended by walls and gates vigilantly guarded by the citizens, but oft-times at the head of their fellow freemen in arms, the mayor, aldermen, or other officers marched forth in firm array to assert their rights, defend their property, and teach the proudest and most powerful baron that the humblest freeman was not to be injured with impunity. It was thus the commons learned and proved they were not objects of contempt; nay that they were beings of the same species as the greatest lords.'

If we subscribe to these remarks with approbation, we must protest against the writer's high compliments paid to Popery and Monks; and though we are aware of the imperfect state of our present system of poor laws, we cannot allow that the old practice of gratuitously relieving from the kitchens of the monasteries was, on the whole, more favourable to religion and morality than the modern mode of relief by parish rates. Nothing can be much worse than luxurious superstition pampering indolent poverty.

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SINGLE SERMONS.

Art. 40. *The Duty of Volunteers:* preached before the Birstall and Batley Volunteers, on the 22d of April, 1804, by Hammond Roberson, A.M. Chaplain to the Corps. 8vo. 1s. Ostell.

We cannot hesitate to speak in favour of this discourse, since it is replete with good sense, and directed to the advancement of truth and piety. The text renders it remarkable, as it seems to invert the advice given by St. Paul to Timothy, [2d. ep. chap. ii. 3.] and applies to the volunteer audience in a literal sense what originally had been metaphorically delivered to a Christian minister,—*Endure hardship as a good Soldier.*—'It is evidently taken for granted in this expression, that the ability to bear hardships is a leading quality in the character of a soldier.'—Accordingly, the preacher, with propriety and ingenuity, with a gentle spirit and a pleasing engaging manner, prosecutes the design. Since it is requisite that those, who, on an emergency, must be collected to oppose an invading adversary, should be formed into regular bodies and made acquainted with military discipline, it is also desireable that they should receive exhortations of the kind here communicated.

Art. 41. *The Tears of Peter:* translated from the original French of the late Rev. Peter Du Bosc, Pastor of the French Church at Rotterdam. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Button. 1804.

M. Du Bosc is well known to have been a Protestant minister of real worth, and merited distinction, in the seventeenth century. At Caen in Normandy he resided, in high estimation, for many years, and was singularly useful in vindicating and supporting the cause of Christian liberty against the machinations, political, civil, and ecclesiastical, which were formed against it: but he was at length silenced by an arbitrary oppressive government, and a persecuting church. He then retired to Holland, and was a minister at Rotterdam until his death on the 2d of January, 1692. The account of him exhibited in this pamphlet seems to be principally extracted from Bayle's *Dictionaire historique et critique.*—The sermon thus offered to public notice appears to have been preached on a day of humiliation, from Luke xxii, 52. 'And Peter went out and wept bitterly.' It is a lively and animated composition: its descriptions are at times engaging; and its remarks and reflections are occasionally striking, affecting, and impressive, in the French style and manner, particularly at that period. It is now published as a specimen of this author's performances, and of the *translation*; 'as it is intended, should it meet with a favourable reception, to publish a farther number of his sermons on select subjects.' The work is to consist of four volumes, accompanied by a copious life.

CORRESPONDENCE.

*** We have had the honour of a letter from Count Rumford, dated from Munich, in June last; respecting the question of priority of discoveries on the subject of Heat, which the public consider as at issue between the Count and Mr. Professor Leslie. This communication we are required to insert in the M. R. in consequence of our having expressed an opinion somewhat decided on this matter, in our number for March last, when reviewing one of the Count's papers in the Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society; but the letter of the

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Coun

Count is extended to an inconvenient length, and it is both amplified by observations which we do not consider as merited, and couched in terms which we do not choose to admit. On this question, every man of science had a right to form and to express his opinion from the evidence before him. We did this, and without any idea of wounding the Count's feelings or depreciating his merited fame. We are equally ready now to lay before our readers such parts of the letter which we have received, as convey the strongest testimony on the disputed point; and they are these:

'In order to remove any scruples which ill founded suspicions may have occasioned in your minds, I hereby declare in the most solemn manner, and shall at all times be ready to confirm the declaration by a legal and solemn Oath, that at the time when the experiments were made, by me, (at Munich in the beginning of the year 1803.) of which I have given an account in my enquiry concerning the nature of heat, and the mode of its communication, published in the Transactions of the Royal Society of London; namely the experiments on the cooling of hot Water, confined in metallic Vessels, sometimes exposed naked to the air, and sometimes covered with linen cloth, or with various coatings of paint, or varnish; I had no knowledge or suspicion whatever that like, or similar experiments, had ever been made, or ever thought on, either by Mr. John Leslie, or by any other person, or persons, living or dead; and that until the month of June 1804, when I first received an account of Mr. Leslie's book on heat, then just published, I had no knowledge whatever, either of Mr. Leslie's experiments (similar to some of mine) which are published in that treatise; nor of an instrument therein described, which he has called *a differential Thermometer*; nor had I till then any knowledge whatever, either from report, or otherwise, of the place of residence of Mr. Leslie, his occupations, or opinions, but that which I had occasionally acquired by reading the different periodical scientific publications in which his name has appeared.'

This controversy undoubtedly assumes an extraordinary aspect, from the wonderful coincidence of newly-invented facts, newly-invented instruments, and novel inferences and conclusions. We make no farther remark at present, than that it is now desirable that the public should hear from Mr. Leslie himself, if these statements appear to him to require and be open to his reply.

In our Review for May last, we mentioned an edition of Baker's poem on the Universe, and stated its price to be 2s. but we are requested to say that it should have been printed 1s. We are often put to great inconvenience, from the price of publications not being regularly marked on the title or half-title: and we recommend the adoption of such a rule to all authors, as affording necessary information, and liable to no objection.

An Old Lawyer is informed that the subject of his letter is put *into chancery*: after which, he will not wonder at delay. We doubt not, if his signature be justly assumed, that he can construe this *innendo*.

☞ The APPENDIX to this volume of the Review will be published with the Number for September, on the 1st of October.

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APPENDIX

TO THE

FORTY-SEVENTH VOLUME

OF THE

MONTHLY REVIEW

ENLARGED.

FOREIGN LITERATURE.

ART. I. *Mémoires de l'Institut National*, &c.; *i. e.* Memoirs of the National Institute of Arts and Sciences. Vol. V. In Three Parts. 4to. Paris. 1804. Imported by De Boffe, London *.

SOME time since, we mentioned the report of a writer abroad, that the functions of the National Institute had been suspended: but we find that its labours have sustained no interruption, and that it continues to furnish the public with its customary quantity of literary food. Of its quality, we shall speak in detail; commencing with the part relative to

The MORAL *and* POLITICAL SCIENCES.

If there be a few papers in this volume which give it value, though they are less numerous than in those which have preceded it, others are allowed to swell its bulk, to which nothing but the absolute dearth of good productions could have insured admission. It is obvious to persons endowed with the least information and reflection, that it is impossible that letters should flourish under the political regimen to which France is at present subject: but this truth will not be felt in all its force, till the persons whose minds had been formed, and whose habits had been fixed, previously to the revolution, have disappeared from the stage. In the mean time, there cannot be a more clear proof of the justness of the position, than the fact that scarcely one of the prizes offered by the Institute has been gained; and that the essays which have been produced

* Complete sets, or any parts, may be had of M. De Boffe.

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in competition for them have been deemed unworthy to bear them away. We shall mention some of the subjects which failed to call forth adequate exertion.

"*For what objects, and on what terms, does it benefit a republican state to make public loans?*"—We presume that it would have been a question much more applicable to the situation of France, to have inquired "*How is a state to inspire confidence, so as to be able to make loans?*" The proposition, however, has been withdrawn; whether in order to bring it forwards again with the omission of the impertinent and obnoxious epithet *republican*, we know not.

Similar has been the fate of the question respecting *the brutal treatment of animals*, and the propriety of making laws to remedy this evil; as also of that which respected *the effects on public wealth which might result from the abolition of slavery* in Europe, and of that which directed an inquiry into *the elementary faculties of the mind*. The dissertation on *the influence of the reformation of Luther* is the only one in the class of subjects contained in this volume, which has been crowned with a prize.

Among the unpublished essays, of which an analysis is given, mention is made of one by M. MERCIER, in which the topic of history is very roughly treated. He tells us that, in remote times, poems, allegories, apologues, fictitious speeches ascribed to heroes, relations dictated by a thousand jarring interests, in one word *conventional fables*, to borrow a phrase of *Fontenelle*,—this was the state of affairs among the ancients; in the middle age, chronicles, legends, and miraculous lives, were in vogue; and in these later times, compilations and imitations, biographical sketches which possess as much truth as the harangues in Livy, memoirs founded on no documents, contradictory accounts, systems of morals and politics thrown into narrative, panegyrics and satires. Such is history, according to Citizen MERCIER; and in this charge, we discern matter for reflection in the most dispassionate mind. Doubtless, the most correct narratives are mixed with much that is dubious, and something that is false: but how different is this from the wild proposition that history is destitute of all truth, and deserves no reliance, which is the corollary that M. MERCIER wishes to be drawn by his readers! We are not to wonder, indeed, if our neighbours do not bear any extraordinary good-will to history, since it has a horrible tale to tell against them, and time will only serve to make it more hideous.

The first of the original communications is a *Memoir on the discoveries made by La Pérouse, on the coast of Tartary, and to the North of Japan*. By M. BUACHE.—This is a very fair analysis,

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and is accompanied by just observations on the communications of the lamented voyager. The writer censures the instructions given to *La Pérouse* as being too extensive, since he was directed to explore all the unknown coasts of the ocean; whereas, according to the memorialist, his orders should have confined his researches to the north-east coast of Asia. He very much approves the course prescribed to the English navigator, Captain Vancouver, viz. to explore the north-west coast of America; and the results, he observes, indicate the exactness and precision which are to be expected from so judicious a plan. He considers the survey made by *La Pérouse* of the opposite coasts of Tartary, and the isle of Tchoka or Saghalien, as the most perfect part of his work.

M. Buache informs us that the object which he has had in view, in his researches, has been to ascertain the knowlege which we possess of this part of the globe, and to aid the navigators who may endeavour to render it complete. He considers it as clear that the coasts of the Tartar channel have been sufficiently reconnoitred; and that the straits of *La Pérouse*, and the western coasts of the isles of Mareekan, and of the Company, are sufficiently known. Though he gives much praise to the survey of the land of Jeso, taken by the Dutch in 1643, he is of opinion that there still remain some desiderata respecting it; that the land of Jeso, as it is called by the Dutch, or Chicha as the Russians term it, is not all land, but a groupe of islands; that the large islands of Jeso and Matmay, which figure in the fine map of the world by Arrowsmith and elsewhere, are not new discoveries, but were known to D'Anville, and inserted by him in his general map of Chinese Tartary; and that the straits of Saugaar, as laid down in the maps which accompany the voyages of *La Pérouse*, are not founded on his own examination, but on the confidence which he had seen reason to place in the Dutch map.

The writer concludes with saying that, in order to perfect the discoveries of this part of Asia, it remains to explore the coast of Tartary on the side of Corea, the straits of Saugaar, and the western part of the isle of Chicha as far as the straits of *La Pérouse*, the eastern coast of Tchoka or Saghalien, from Cape Patience to its northern extremity, and the rest of its western coast as far down as the straits which separate it from Tartary, and whither the river Saghalien discharges its waters. It might also be proper to take a survey of the Kurile islands included between Mareekan and Kamtschatka. The Russians give varying accounts of these isles.—We approve the laudable curiosity attempted to be excited by M. Buache, and coincide in his feelings with respect to the advantages to be derived from

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pursuing the path which he recommends.—The memoir is illustrated by a chart of the Discoveries of *La Pérouse* to the north of Japan, &c.

We next come to a paper written in 1777 by M. GAUDIN, and left imperfect by him. This fragment, *on the laws of Solon, and the government of Athens*, has no other merit than that of neat statement; and it bears more resemblance to an academical exercise, than to a philosophical discussion.

Observations on the itinerary chart of the Romans, commonly called the chart of Peutinger, and on the Geography of the anonymous author of Ravenna. By M. BUACHE.—It is here remarked that Itineraries have been regarded in every age as one of the foundations of Geography: that they are among the earliest methods used for determining the position of places; and that they stand, for this purpose, next in importance to astronomical observations and geometrical operations: but that undue reliance, placed on them by the antients, has occasioned them to fall into disproportionate neglect.

Of the chart of Peutinger, a splendid edition was published at Vienna in 1753. The object of this chart was to exhibit, under one point of view, and in a commodious and portable form, the great roads of the Roman Empire, and even of the antient world: the whole was comprized on a surface twenty-two feet long and one broad. The names of places are not inserted in it according to their position, as in our maps, except in the case of cities through which the roads pass. The names of mountains, rivers, and seas occur in it, but no regard is paid to their position, form, or dimensions. It is evident, therefore, that this Itinerary was constructed for a particular purpose, and that it was intended to be an accurate representation of the relations and distances of places on the great roads. It is to be lamented that it abounds with faults; the greater number of names are corrupted, many of the letters which denote the distances are altered or omitted, roads are sometimes marked twice, others are reversed, and others are either interrupted or sketched so confusedly as to render them wholly useless. It is the wish of the present author,—a wish that often before has been expressed by the learned,—that some competent person would undertake the examination of this monument, and restore it to all its purity; which would occasion it to obtain the attention of the scientific and to receive those corrections and emendations which all works have undergone that have fallen into general circulation. He is desirous to engage similar notice in favour of the Geography of Ravenna; which is not, as he remarks, a general description of the world, as many suppose, but a copy of the antient itineraries; the divisions being into provinces. It is a work, says the author, highly

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highly worthy of attention. It has preserved a thousand names before unknown to geography. The description of Asia given in it furnishes much information on the subject of the antient geography of Persia and India; and that of Egypt is minute, and wholly new. Its details of Mauritania, Spain, and Great Britain, are the more valuable in consequence of our being deprived of the Roman chart of these countries; the only copy that has come down to us being without the first leaf. He bespeaks, also, in behalf of this work, the labours of some learned and laborious critic.—The republic of letters is obliged to M. BUACHE for his attempts to secure attention to the curious monuments, of which he has given so interesting and satisfactory a description.

A summary of two Memoirs on the nilometer of the Island of Elephantis, and on the antient cubit of the Egyptians. By M. GIRARD.—The nilometer having been discovered by M. GIRARD, he appears duly to have examined it, and here minutely to describe it. A given division in the scale of the nilometer he assumes to be the Egyptian cubic; and, according to his admeasurement, it gives nineteen inches and six lines of the French foot. MM. *Lepère* and *Coutelle*, we learn, were sent at the request of the institute of Cairo to measure a side of the base of the great pyramid. Supposing that, among the antient admeasurements, that of Pliny was correct, (for which there are strong probable grounds,) and adapting that to the result of the Institutists, (if we may use the term,) the foot of Pliny corresponds exactly with that which M. GIRARD supposes it to be, conformably to the scale of the nilometer; and applying this datum to the calculations of Eratosthenes, he makes that writer approach extremely near to the truth, in his measurement of a degree of the meridian. Following these data, he finds that the degree of the Alexandrian philosopher, being determined under the tropic, bears nearly the exact proportion which it ought to the degrees as measured by *Bouguer* under the equator, and by *Delambre* and *Méchain* in a temperate latitude. Thus, he asserts, have his researches respecting the nilometer vindicated the high opinion entertained by the antients of the President of the Alexandrian Museum, and rescued his fame from the detraction which it had undergone in consequence of the mistakes of the moderns with regard to the measures of antiquity.

On the Authority and use of Inscriptions in Roman legislation. Two Memoirs. By M. BOUCHAUD.—The title of these papers sounds strangely, and appears at the first glance to be incorrect; when we advance to the perusal of the papers, we cannot doubt that it is so; and that, instead of *Legislation*, the writer ought to have inserted the words *administration of justice*. If the remarks

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discover laudable industry, they prefer no claim either to novelty or ingenuity; they want every thing like arrangement and discrimination; the purport of inscriptions is related, and the reader is expected to be surprized at the variety of them: but it is never hinted to him that, in semi-barbarous ages, inscriptions in brass and marble have a preference, as being more likely to resist the violence of the times. Besides, during the same period, the materials on which writing is executed are imperfect; and there are none of the contrivances for preserving them which become so abundant in a highly cultivated age. Hence we find that inscriptions of various kinds were employed to answer the purposes for which written instruments are now used; thus an inscription on a column, a temple, or other building, or a tablet, had the effect of a charter, of a grant, of a testament, of a contract, and of a dispensation, according to its subject-matter. It was not as mere inscriptions that they had this operation, but as recognized legal instruments. If any one were to describe the effects of modern deeds and agreements, and ascribe them to paper or parchment writing generally, without mentioning the designations and consequences which they derive from the laws, the tale would appear not less marvellous than that which is here related of Roman inscriptions. Let them be regarded as legal instruments, and all the wonder vanishes. In favour of this method, which is less convenient than the present, it may be observed that, had it never been superseded, it would effectually have prevented the mischievous and disgraceful verboseness of our mode rnsecurities.—If we make allowance for their singular mode of treating the subject, we shall find in these papers many facts and observations worthy of the learning of M. Bouchaud, and such as suggest some interesting inquiries. The notes subjoined to the first memoir will be found highly instructive.

On the formation of Languages considered with regard to the most simple elements of the Greek tongue. By P. C. Levesque.—An attempt at a mechanical analysis of the above mentioned elements, in which the sense is derived from the sound: the whole displaying ingenuity, but in our opinion extremely fanciful.

On the Government of France under the first two dynasties. By the same.—This memoir is of a cast very different from most of those which are to be found in the present volume. The writer is master of his subject, his conclusions are ably drawn, and if not in each instance properly supported, he is instructive even when the spirit of system leads him astray.

He observes very justly that we ought not to explore antiquity, in order to discover facts on which we may found claims to liberty. We admit that the mind ought to enter on the wide field without bias of any sort, and explore it fairly: but

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but if it be puerile to expect to find it auspicious to popular rights, it is in the same degree perverse to seem anxious, by harsh constructions, to destroy the force of any usages which we may discover there that are favorable to the claims of human kind. Those who are well versed in the principles of our common nature, and who are sensible how far associations influence our conduct and sentiments, will not, with this author, undervalue the claims to freedom which are founded on antient titles. In saying thus much, we would not be understood to controvert the position here laid down, namely, that man has an incontestable and imprescriptible right to all his natural liberty, beyond that of which the social union requires the sacrifice. It is farther truly stated by the author that a good constitution is the *chef d' œuvre* of the human mind, that it cannot be formed in unenlightened times, nor be the achievement of barbarians, whose essays in this department will be barbarous like themselves We would add that it also cannot be the work of any one man, nor of any one age, but is only the result of the labours of the virtuous and the wise for successive ages.—This paper is intended as a refutation of the conclusions of the Abbé *Mably*, stated in his *Observ. sur l' Hist. de France.*

The author elaborately deduces the feudal government of the Francs from that which prevails among the Tartars, whose descendants he conjectures to have been the conquerors of Gaul. He supposes that, on the banks of the Rhine, the distinctions of Khans, Sultans, and Mourzas, were preserved under the names of rex, regale, and optimates; and after their settlement in France during the reign of the first race, under those of king, and higher and meaner vassals. He dissents altogether from those who deny that the feudal system existed under the Merovingians; the regimen, he contends, was the same; and he maintains that the terms *beneficium*, *leudes*, and *trustis*, signified the same things under them, which the words *feodum*, *vassallus*, and *homagium* were made to denote under the descendants of Charles Martel. He will not allow this latter chief to be the founder of the feudal arrangements, but the restorer and reformer of them. He controverts, (we think, successfully,) the supposed democratic cast of the government of the Francs, as set forth by *Mably*. The principle of hereditary succession, he observes, must have been strong among warlike tribes, such as the Francs, to induce their submission to the government of a Clovis at the age of fifteen, and to acknowlege Clotaire as their monarch when a child only four years old. Describing the frame of government established by the first barbarian settlers in Gaul, he finds its leading proportions, and its more prominent vices, in the political regimen by which the modern Tartars are governed.

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Charles Martel, he remarks, regulated the mutual obligations of the lord of the fee, and his feudatory. The system was improved by Louis le Debonnaire, was perfected by Charles the Bald, and appeared in all its vigour under Charles the Simple. The government, he asserts, was a despotism; the ruler being only occasionally thwarted by the turbulence of barbarous subjects. He founds this notion on the enormities of which the kings were guilty, and on the style in which they were addressed by their subjects. Clovis butchered all his relations; Clotaire caused his son Chramne to be burned alive, with all his family, in a hut; Chilperic had his son Sigebert massacred; princes, grandees, and prelates, were assassinated by the orders of the horrible Fredegonde, who would have suffocated her own daughter had she not been snatched from her: Theodobert poignarded his own wife, and was afterward, by the orders of his brother Thierry, hurled down from the walls of Cologne; a queen nearly eighty years of age was tied to the tail of an untamed horse by Clotaire II.; and a lord, named Bodillon, was scourged with rods, by order of Chilperic II., because he had dared to make representations to him on the enormity of the public burthens. All these horrors were committed without any remonstrance or complaint being made; and these facts doubtless only accord with a despotism of the most confirmed and malignant kind. A law of the time also corroborates the author's notion. "If any one kills a man by order of his king, or of his chief, having this authority over his vassals, let him not be sought, nor exposed to any inconvenience, because the order was from his lord, which he could not disobey: but let his chief protect him, or if he be dead, let his son take care of him, or whoever he be that succeeds to the deceased lord."—That all this was not usurpation, but that the subjects acquiesced in these enormities, appears from the following address of Gregory of Tours: "if any one of us departs from justice, you can correct him; but, if you violate it yourself, who shall call you to account? We make remonstrances to you, and you listen to them, if it seems good to you; but if you reject them, who will condemn you; unless it be him who says of himself that he is Justice?"

The treatment of the conquered Gauls by their subduers appears to have been more favourable than it is here represented; and a spirit of opposition to *Mably* seems, on this as on other occasions, to carry the writer beyond the line of truth; yet even he cannot deny that much indulgence was shewn to the old inhabitants in the parts into which the Francs were introduced. The nations, however, remained distinct till the bloody battle between the sons of Louis le Debonnaire in 841.

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It has been a controverted point whether there was a class of noblesse, or a superior order of freemen, intitled to certain exclusive privileges by their birth, among the original Francs. The present author adopts the affirmative side; and here again, we think, the advantage is with *Mably*. It also seems to us that M. LEVESQUE represents the feudal system as more oppressive and tyrannical than it really was. There were originally at least mutual benefits. Honour and loyalty blended themselves with the services and the burthens, and made them feel lighter.

A very clumsy hypothesis is suggested by the author to account for the rise of corporate communities, and the emancipation of cities and towns. The most probable cause, to which these can be traced, is the fact of some cities having preserved the constitutions which they possessed under the Roman empire, through all the convulsions which followed; and of these serving as models, when the policy of emancipating them began to be allowed.

Mably appears to have been totally mistaken in his notion of the absence of all taxation in the infancy of the French monarchy. We find that under Clotaire, the son and successor of Clovis, the churches paid a third of their revenue to the government; and that under Chilperic, the next in order, the public burthens became such that many persons left their property and the kingdom on account of them.

An idea entertained by the present author, that the system of government was the same under the first and second race, appears to us to lead him to some errors. It seems to be in itself probable, and it is countenanced by facts, that the monarchs of the usurpring line relented from the despotism of that which they supplanted, and gave a popular complexion to the government; and the assemblies of the *Champ de Mars* strongly corroborate this supposition. When treating this subject, the spirit of system has the effect of closing the eyes of our memorialist; yet his labours, on the whole, do him great credit; he has detected and exposed many mistakes of his predecessors; and if he has himself fallen into errors, it is still evident that he has taken a comprehensive and profound view of the question.

In order to prove that some of the services due from vassals could only have been imposed with the intention of degrading them, M. LEVESQUE relates that, when the kings of England held Guienne, the lady of Corbin was their vassal for the fee of Tuyosse; and that, whenever the sovereign passed that way, the lady was obliged to accompany him as far as the oak of Condal, with a cart full of combustibles drawn by two cows without tails. When they arrived at the oak, fire was to be set to the combustibles, and the cart was to be consumed so far as to set the

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the cows at liberty. The lord of Grians was bound to meet the king at a certain inclosure on his lands, with a taper of black wax, of a pound weight, and to accompany him with it lighted as far as St. Sever.

To shew the abject condition of burgesses, the writer mentions an anecdote of Henry Count of Champagne and Brie, who was surnamed *the Liberal*, on account of his generosity. He often advised with a burgess named *Artaut*, of whose prudence he entertained a high opinion; and the beneficence of the count to the burgess was such that he became rich enough to build the castle of *Nogent l'Artaut*. One day, as the count was going to mass, a poor gentleman introduced to him his two daughters, praying him to aid him in their establishment. *Artaut* was behind the count, and, without giving him time to answer for himself, he told the gentleman that the lord had made so many gifts that he had nothing more to give. "Sir villain, you lie grossly, (said the count to him,) when you say that I have nothing more to give: I have, and I will give yourself to him." Immediately he seized him, and said to the gentleman: "take him, my friend, I give him to you, and engage him to you." The poor gentleman was not astonished, but immediately griped his prize closely, and did not let him loose till he had engaged to pay him five hundred livres; a sum, says the author, equal to twelve thousand and five hundred livres of our money, and of far higher value on account of the depreciation of specie since that period.

On the number of primary Schools which ought to be established. By M. DUPONT (of Nemours).—This memoir appears to have been drawn up in 1798; and the following passage, if applied to the present state of things in France, would have an odd sound: 'We cannot confine the number of primary schools to that of the municipalities, without derogating from the spirit and express design of the constitution, without being guilty towards the majority of the *members of the sovereign*, of a most grave offence, the most destructive of their happiness, and the most prejudicial to the national wealth and power.' The author would have at least one school in each commune; and he would have the masters adequately remunerated. If any credit be due to Sir Francis d'Ivernois, not one of these so much vaunted and so often promised institutions has to this day been founded!

Historical and critical Researches on the Edicts of the Roman Magistrates. Of the edicts of the Dictators, Censors, and some of the Magistrates of Rome. By M. BOUCHAUD.—We have here the seventh memoir on this subject from the pen of M. BOUCHAUD, the six preceding having appeared in the collection of the

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the late *Academy of Inscriptions and Belles Lettres.* As it does not fall within our plan to connect the present and following papers with those which have already appeared, we shall content ourselves with brief notices of them; referring those of our readers, who are interested in researches of this nature, to the valuable originals themselves.

For a length of time, we are told, a dictator was only named in order to oppose imminent danger from without, or to quell sedition at home. Afterward, dictators were appointed for purposes apparently trivial, as in order to insert the sacred nail, to appoint holy-days, to preside over games, and, at the comitia, to investigate certain crimes, and to fill up vacant places in the senate. The dictator was named by the consul, in consequence of a decree of the senate; and the consul could not appoint a dictator without this order, but it is supposed that he might disobey it. His power was absolute as well within as without Rome. The Greek historians denominate him ἀίρετὸν τύραννον, and τύραννον ἀυτοκράτωρα. The life and the property of the citizens were subject to him, and his judgments were without appeal. The establishment of tribunes made considerable inroads on the enormous power of this magistrate. It has been supposed that the dictatorship was an office which was held for six months; whereas the most probable notion is, that it was an extraordinary commission which generally terminated with the business for which it was created. If we find dictators elected from year to year, in order to drive in the sacred nail, to celebrate games, to preside at the comitia, and to appoint public prayers, it was not likely that the consuls would thus frequently appoint them, had they always remained six months in office, and left them so long divested of their authority. Dictators sometimes continued in office longer than six months; and there is no doubt that Camillus held his authority for a whole year. It was a singular regulation that this awful magistrate could not mount a horse, without an express *plebiscitum* to authorize him. Latterly, the tribunes exercised over him the same controul as over the consuls. A dictator could not command armies beyond the precincts of Italy. His office was always regarded with jealousy: but the irregular manner in which Sylla and Julius Cæsar obtained it, and the bloody use made of it by the former, rendered it so odious to the Romans that Mark Antony, in his consulship, obtained an enactment that it should be a capital offence in any one to attempt to establish a dictatorship, or to accept of it. This happened in the year 710.

Though the functions of the great state officers under the commonwealth and empire of Rome have been often described

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scribed, we are not acquainted with any accounts of them which exceed those here given, in perspicuity, neatness, and accuracy.

Eighth Memoir. *On the Edicts of the Roman Provincial Magistrates.* By the same.—When a country was reduced to a province, the Roman senate and people, or the commander of the forces, by their order, decreed the laws by which in future it was to be governed. When the general settled this arrangement, he had eight or ten commissioners united to him for the purpose. The decree, thus made, was called the *formula*, or the law of the Province; and in this was stated the taxes which the new subjects were to pay, and the forms by which justice was to be administered.

The author contends, in opposition to Pancirolus, that the Prefectus Augustalis of Egypt, who was never of consular rank, but who must be a knight, issued edicts as well as the proconsuls and proprætors;—the powers of the governors were the same, also, in this respect, as well in the provinces which were at the disposal of the emperor, as in those which were under the direction of the senate.

Each governor, on his appointment, published an edict; and it was either *tralatitium*, or *novum*; or, as was most ordinarily the case, partly the one, and partly the other. If the governor only republished the edict of his predecessor, it was termed *tralatitium*; if it was in part a republication, and in part original, then it was regarded as partly *tralatitium*, and partly *novum*. In these edicts, the governors were attentive to three things; that they should be conformable to the *formula*, that they should correspond with the edicts issued by them while city magistrates, and that the judgments which they pronounced should be in unison with them.

Ninth Memoir. *On the Edicts of the Emperors.* By the same.—The writer here asks how it happened that the first emperors, who acknowleged the authority of the senate, and who respected the forms of liberty, issued edicts? In the time of Adrian, he says, this is not remarkable, for even appearances then ceased to be regarded. *Senatus consulta*, at that period, were never decreed, unless some unpopular measure was proposed, the odium of which was intended to fall on the senate. These early imperial edicts, M. Bouchaud states, were founded on the authority of the several magistracies which were conferred on Augustus and his successors; and these were the tribuneship, the title of Imperator, proconsular authority, and the pontificate. Each of the first emperors united all these magistracies in his own person; which invested him with supreme power in all that regarded religion, military

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military matters, and the government of the city and provinces. By the *lex regia*, the edicts of the emperor, and the answers given by him to the questions, whether of magistrates, corporate bodies, or individuals,—as well as his decrees, whether judicial, or casual,—had the force of laws. Edicts were either designed for the whole empire, or restricted to particular places. They were made public in different ways; being engraved sometimes on marble, sometimes on columns, sometimes on bronze, and sometimes on wax. They were also proclaimed in different parts by a herald; and care was taken to have them properly circulated through the empire.

These three successive memoirs greatly enhance thevalue of this volume, and are in a high degree instructive and entertaining.

A Voyage to and a Journey by land from Jerusalem to France, in the course of the years 1432 and 1433, by Bertrandon de la Brocquière, *Counsellor and Chamberlain to Philip the Good, Duke of Burgundy; extracted from a manuscript in the national Library, andtranslated into modern French by* M. LEGRAND D'AUSSY.—If thi communication seems to be out of place in the present volure, and if its insertion argues a dearth of literary productions, ve are not disposed to regret the deviation; indeed few originl articles can be expected to prove so interesting as this curiotsnarrative, which occupies a space of more than a hundred and fty pages. A learned preliminary discourse gives an account of the predecessors of the gallant Burgundian knight in the samcline; and the writer thus introduces the author of the relatin which is now made public for the first time:

'In the year 1432, many great lords of Burgundy, nd officers of Duke Philip the Good, went on a pilgrimage to the Hly Land, and among others la Brocquière. This traveller, having mae many pious excursions in the country, returned ill to Jerusalem; id he formed, during his convalescence, the bold project of returnig by land to France. In order to effect this design, it was necessaryo traverse the western parts of Asia, the east of Europe, and every art, except at the close of the journey, was subject to the Mussulmapower. This is an enterprize attended with difficulties even at prest, but at that period it was full of extreme danger. He hoveventered on his scheme, and performed it in the course of the year 143, before the close of which he presented himself to his lord, arrad in his Saracen's dress, and with the horse with which he had erformed this marvellous journey.'

Letters were much indebted to Philip theGood. Like Charles V, of France, he established a library; he ocured translations to be made, and original works to be untaken; encouraged

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couraged men of learning, artists, and copyists; and no man of his time rendered more real service to science.

The editor observes that it is easy to discern that the author was a *gentil homme*, because he talks so much about horses, castles, and tournaments. His narrative is properly an itinerary, and his descriptions of the countries and towns manifest great sameness: but still the account illustrates the history and geography of the period. We sometimes meet, in his simple relation, with very valuable facts; and with pictures and sketches of considerable merit. The writer was evidently a man of understanding and good sense, judicious and considerate in his proceedings; and the impartiality with which he speaks of infidel nations which he had occasion to know, particularly the Turks, is much to be commended. He also manifests a mind very free from superstition, considering the time: he writes like a soldier; his frank and loyal style announces veracity, and inspires confidence: but he is, as might be expected, careless, and his narrative is confused.

A singular trait of Mohammedan fanaticism is related by this traveller of the fifteenth century. The highest act of devotion among the true believers, during their visit to Mecca, is that of beholding the shrine of the prophet; and he states that he had been informed that many of them, as soon as they had been blessed with the edifying sight, put out their eyes, alledging that now the world could offer nothing farther worthy of their regard. In a troop which he met on their return from Mecca, he says that there were two, one a lad of sixteen, and another a young man of two-and-twenty, who had on this principle deprived themselves of their eye-sight.

He mentions that, on an occasion when it was proposed by some Turk to destroy him, in order to divide his possessions among them, another Mussulman interposed; urged that, as they had eaten and drank with him, it would be a crime which their law prohibited; and observed that, after all, *God had made the Christians as well as the Saracens.* This saying of the Mohammedan is a text which bears a very pregnant meaning. It embraces within itself every proposition which goes to establish equal rights.

The author states of the lord of Turcomania, that he was endowed with high personal qualities, that his mother was a Christian, and that he had been baptized, but that he was neither a good Christian nor Mussulman, and that when they talked with him of the prophets Jesus and Mohammed, he was accustomed to say, "I am for the living prophets, they will be of more use to me than those who are dead."

Having

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Having recited the acts of kindness to him, performed by a Mameluke, to whose zeal and address he had often owed his life, the writer thus concludes his account; 'I write this in order that it may be recollected that the person who, for the love of God, did me so many good services, was *ung homme hors de nostre foy.*' It would seem that there were knights in the fifteenth century, who entertained sentiments more liberal and generous than are professed by many persons of the same rank in the nineteenth.

The description of the Greek Empress at Constantinople shews all the gallantry of a true knight; it descends to her person, her dress, and her manner of riding on horseback, which was astride like a man. At this capital, the pious knight is the *esprit fort*; and he not only calls in question, but almost ridicules, the miracles and relics of the schismatic church.

The capital of the Turk was at this time at Adrianople, whither the traveller accompanied the ambassador of the Duke of Milan. He describes this court, its usages, and the leading persons in it, and makes many observations on the policy and military force of that power, which will even now be read with interest, but which were at the time deserving of the highest attention.

For many other curious topics discussed in this paper, we must refer our readers to the memoir. As adapted to general use, the new dress in which it appears is convenient, but for ourselves we should have preferred the original text; why might it not have accompanied the version?

The other volumes of this *livraison* will be the subject of future notice.

[*To be continued.*]

Art. II. *Memoires de Physiologie & de Chirurgie Pratique*, &c.; *i. e.* Memoirs on Physiology and Practical Surgery, by A. Scarpa, Professor of Anatomy and Clinical Surgery in the University of Pavia, &c. and by J. B. T. Leveille, Doctor of Physic in the School of Medicine at Paris. 1. A Commentary on the more minute Structure of the Bones, by Scarpa, with a Preface and pathological Notes by the Editor. 2. Of Club Feet, and the Mode of correcting that congenital Deformity, by the same. 3. Of Luxations of the Thigh forwards, by Leveille. 4. General Remarks on Necrosis, by the same. With 8 Engravings. 8vo. pp. 336. Paris, 1804. Imported by de Boffe.

According to the ideas of *Haller*, and most other writers on the subject of osteology, the bones in their firmer and more solid parts are lamellated and fibrous, and in their looser are reticulated and cellular. The first essay in the present volume is

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is designed to disprove this opinion, and to shew that the whole substance of the bones is of the latter description—Professor SCARPA enters into the controversy with much zeal, and states the objects of it to be, not whether the larger portion of bones is of a cellular structure, for that is very easily demonstrable, but whether their hard and almost stony external crust possesses a similar reticulated and cellular texture with their inner substance. He prosecutes his inquiry first in a synthetical way, and for this purpose repeats the experiments made by *Haller* on the bones of the chick at different periods from incubation. From those experiments, as well as from observations made by him on the human fœtus, he deduces the following corollaries:

1. 'That cartilage is the module of the suture bone, and that all the parts of bones once existed in the state of cartilage.

2. 'That the reticular and cellular structure of bones, when it first begins to shew itself in the cartilage, about the middle of the cylindrical bones, is of a rugous appearance.

3. 'That the cartilage is changed into bone, both by the action of the blood vessels, and by the addition of earth to the rugous cartilaginous spaces, so as to form an osseous net-work.

4. 'That when ossification begins, the whole of the tube of the cylindrical bones is light and flocculous, without any appearance of shell on the outside.

5. 'That when ossification is complete, the parietes of the cavities of cylindrical bones, about the middle of them, are denser and thinner, from the cellular texture being more firmly compressed: for the crust or bark of bones is merely the reticulated and cellular osseous substance more closely compacted, which does not happen even in the middle of either cylindrical or flat bones, before the ossification of the whole cartilaginous module.

6. 'That the spongy structure of the extremities of cylindrical bones is not to be attributed, as most anatomists think, to laminæ separated from the parietes of the medullary cavity, but is to be referred to the expansion of the cancelli of the original cartilage.

7. 'In short, that the primæval minute texture of cylindrical and flat bones, both in the chick in ovo, and in the human embryo, when the bones are as yet flexible, light, and cottony, (gossypiacea) is nothing but a reticulated and cellular net-work.'

In order to confirm, by analytical experiments, the truth of the deductions now mentioned, the Professor immersed in muriatic acid the tibia of a human adult, until the whole of the osseous matter was removed, and the bone was reduced to the state of a flexible and pellucid cartilage. He then macerated it for some time in water, and at last brought the hardest external part of it to a flocculous net-work, precisely similar to that of the extremities of the bones, except that it was much more dense and compact. The same likewise happened

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when firm and flat adult bones, such as those of the head, were treated in a similar way; they exhibited, on being suspended in oil of turpentine, such a reticulated appearance, that they might be taken for some membrane, converted by long maceration into a flocculous net-work.—The ideas which he thus forms, on the structure of the harder portions of bones, are, he thinks, supported by the analogy of every part of the animal body; for it is universally found that, as life advances, the solids become more dense and rigid. In order to discover whether, as he at different times suspected, the firm cortical part of bones was capable, by relaxation and expansion, of exhibiting a cellular appearance, he made the following experiment on a young dog. He laid bare the tibia, cut out a part of it, destroyed the marrow with a probe, and filled the cavity of the bone with thread. On the next day, the whole leg was greatly swoollen. By the 6th day, there was a copious discharge from the wound, and the soft parts around it began to subside; the tibia was then found to be much swelled; and this swelling increased more and more till the 40th day, when the dog was killed.—On examination, there appeared a large exostosis; and the tibia being cut longitudinally, the author discovered that the whole of the firm shell, or bark, which was not naturally more than half a line thick, had expanded into an osseous net-work, of more than six lines in thickness.

The production of this exostosis, Professor Scarpa thinks, is to be attributed to the hard external substance of the bone, when separated from the periosteum, becoming soft by an absorption of its osseous part, and then shooting out its cellular substance, into which bony matter is afterward deposited. The author's ideas on the subject of the present memoir received in his mind a complete confirmation, by observations on the whale and several other animals; in which the reticulated structure of the harder parts of bones was very manifest to the naked eye. The memoir is concluded by an inquiry into the existence of the diploë in the fœtal cranium; and into that of the frontal, ethmoidal, maxillary, and spheroidal sinuses in the cranium of a fœtus in the 9th month—After much investigation, M. Scarpa is convinced that the supposition of the absence of either the diploë, or the sinuses now mentioned, is erroneous.

Memoir II. treats on the subject of club feet. M. Scarpa enters very largely into an anatomical description of the peculiar nature of this malformation, and details at considerable length the plan which he has found most effectual in removing it. As such accounts, however, require the assistance

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of his plates to be intelligible, we shall only give a summary of his general ideas.—He is of opinion that this deformity consists 'in a twisting, on their smaller axis, of the navicular and cuboid bones, and the *os calcis*, which draw with them the cuneiform bones, the *metatarsus*, and the phalanges of the toes; and that on the whole the astragalus is the least displaced, and the least inclined of all the other bones of the tarsus.' In attempting the cure of this distortion, we are to aim, 1st. At directing, insensibly and gradually, to a course the contrary to that which produces the deformity, the navicular bone, the *os cuboides*, *calcis*, *cuneiforme*, and the bones of the *metatarsus*; and at giving to the foot the direction which it ought to have with the tibia. 2. At substituting, for a defect of strength in the external ligaments of the foot, and more particularly of the peronei muscles, an artificial force, which shall not only be able to counterbalance the tension of the internal ligaments, and the shortening of the muscles, but to conquer these oppositions, and to keep the external edge of the foot suspended over the ground. 3. Having re-established the equilibrium between the muscular powers of the *peronei* and *tibiales* muscles, the last indication is to provoke, by the assistance of the combined action of these two orders of muscles, the direct flexion of the foot on the tibia; in order that, after having thus surmounted the resistance opposed by the strong tension of the tendon of Achilles, we may be able to depress the posterior tuberosity of the heel, and bring it to the direction which it ought to have with the sole of the foot: by which means, all the motions of flexion and extension will be able to be performed.

The 3d Memoir is written by M. LEVEILLÉ, and treats of luxations of the thigh forwards. It details, at considerable length, the opinions and practice of both antient and modern authors on this species of injury: but the nature of the discussion precludes abridgement.

Memoir 4. by the same author, is on the subject of Necrosis.—M. LEVEILLÉ professes, in almost every page, a very high degree of candour, and an inflexible regard to philosophical precision: but we cannot forbear remarking that the prominent features here exhibited are vanity, and an overbearing confidence in personal opinion. The author considers himself as the daring opponent of prejudice and error, and with much self complacency aggravates the dangers of contending against the insufficiency and the folly of many opinions entertained with respect to this disease. He enters into various details 'for the purpose,' as he tells us, 'of preventing it from being believed that he is ignorant of any thing which has been said or thought on the subject of Necrosis;' and he assures us 'that

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it is precisely because every thing is known to him, and because he has thought on every point of theory relating to this disease, that he raises doubts, and contests the truth of all that has been written with regard to it.' He combats with vehemence the opinion entertained by *Du Hamel* on the part which the periosteum bears in forming the sequestra; and though many of his remarks on this point are extremely well founded, yet he ought to have known, with the erudition for which he so much contends, that, if many of his countrymen are disposed to retain that opinion, the ablest writers with us have long set it aside. Mr. Russel's work on Necrosis, which is one of the best and most philosophical accounts of the disease that has yet been published, seems to have entirely escaped his notice.

The opinion of M. *Du Hamel*, that the new bone in Necrosis is formed by an expansion of the periosteum, and a deposition of osseous matter into its cells, is of course totally rejected by the present author. Instead of this idea, he concludes that it is to the old bone that the formation of the new one is due; and that the final separation of the sequestra does not take place till the new bone is completed, and is enabled to answer the purposes for which it was intended. Thus far, the author seems to be supported by facts: but, in his endeavours to explain the precise mode in which the old contributes to the formation of the new bone, he appears to us to have adopted a gratuitous supposition. He perfectly agrees with Professor SCARPA in his ideas on the minute structure of bones, and by means of those ideas he attempts to account for the phænomenon in question.—The whole of the substance of bones is regarded by the Professor as of a cellular texture; and in the experiment with the dog, which is mentioned above, the exostosis was attributed to an expansion of the osseous cells, and a subsequent deposition of bony matter into them. In the case of Necrosis, the same process is supposed to exist. A sound part of the bone inflames, and its substance becomes soft and pulpy by the absorption of its calcareous phosphate. The inflammation continuing, the cellular substance forming the rudiments of it expands, and receives into its cells the secretion of calcareous phosphate which is to form the future solid mass of bone. As this operation is completing, the parts joining the sequestra to the newly generated bone are absorbed, and the latter becomes loose. In this way, it is conjectured, a very small portion of sound bone is capable of expanding into one of very considerable size.

In thus accounting for the formation of new bone in Necrosis, exostosis, or fracture, the author and Professor SCARPA

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both assume a position which is not sufficiently proved; viz. that there is a removal of the solid parts of the sound bone, and a subsequent expansion of its cellular membrane.

The effusion of a glairy matter from a fractured surface, and indeed from the vessels of divided soft parts, does not admit of a doubt; and it appears probable, though it is not sufficiently decided, that this new matter is supplied with vessels from the same surface by which it was thrown out.

Analogy would, therefore, lead us to conclude that, in Necrosis likewise, there is an inorganic effusion, which (unless we admit Mr. Hunter's ideas of vitality,) receives vessels, nerves, and absorbents from the contiguous parts, and is in time converted into bone by a deposit of calcareous phosphate, and an absorption of the softer parts: but that it is the cellular substance, (which forms as is supposed the old bed of the osseous matter), that expands after the absorption of its osseous matter, and then receives a deposit of bone into its cells, seems to be as gratuitous a supposition, as that which has been entertained by *Du Hamel* with regard to the expansion or prolongation of the periosteum. The mode in which new parts are formed is extremely obscure, and this curious point of pathology is not likely to receive any elucidation from the substitution of vague hypothesis for legitimate theory.

ART. III. *Manuscrits de* M. NECKER, &c.; *i. e.* Manuscripts of M. NECKER, published by his Daughter. 8vo. pp. 354. Geneva, 1804. Imported by de Boffe. Price 7s. 6d. sewed.

MORE than a third part of this volume is occupied by a tribute to the memory of the celebrated person, of whose productions the remainder consists. If as a recital of facts, as an estimate of character, and as a biographical sketch, this performance does not present strong claims to commendation, it cannot be denied that it is highly creditable to the powers of mind, to the sensibility, and to the filial devotion of the fair writer. The effusions are those of a heart oppressed by grief, and which cherishes it as a natural and becoming passion in the circumstances which then existed. In this state of the mind, the imagination attributes to the individual, whose loss is lamented, every valuable and attractive quality; clothes him with every species of excellence; and sees in him nothing that is ordinary, but all that is marvellous and supernatural. Thus we find the pen of Madame DE STAEL, when it sketches the traits of her venerable relative, indulging in a new and unusual phraseology. Not only is her respected parent without an equal in all that relates to elevation of mind and purity of heart, not

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only are his faculties of a higher order and his feelings more refined than those of other men, but he comes forth from her hands an ethereal being, a demigod; so that had this lady lived in pagan times, many an altar, raised by filial piety, would have smoked in honour of the matchless benefactor of humanity. The grief which thus seeks to be increased and protracted, which thus readily dissolves in expressions of lamentation, which thus communicates itself and invites sympathy, is obviously not of a profound sort: but it is that of which alone the generality of mankind are susceptible;—when it shuns publicity, and when the individual is wholly absorbed, and becomes as it were a martyr to it, then it rises to its greatest elevation. Though we admit the effusions before us to be both natural and respectable, we cannot forbear remarking that a person who is under their influence, as he respects society at large, his own fame, and that memory which he wishes to consecrate, ought not to commune with the public till his mind has been restored to his proper tone, and has recovered from that imbecillity to which heart-felt sorrow has reduced it.

The history of the public life of M. Necker is well known; that of the private and domestic demeanour of a statesman scarcely ever requires more than a short chapter: but that chapter is not given in this volume. The fair author mentions the fondness with which her father conversed on the time which he passed in obscurity, devoted to the pursuits of commerce, but she has unkindly neglected to state to the public the communications which he made to her. How much better would these have filled the page, than the superfluous and repeated panegyrics which now weary us in the perusal! Of the facts and observations which appear to us to be new and striking, we shall submit a selection to our readers.

Madame de Stael observes that her father possessed, in a very eminent degree, the faculty of creating an interest in his favour, in the minds of those whose good will he was desirous to secure. His first diplomatic situation was that of minister from the republic of Geneva to the court of France, in the vicinity of which he already resided. The government of Geneva having it in contemplation to dispatch to Paris a person of superior talents, to treat on a particular business with M. *de Choiseul*, that minister, on being made acquainted with their intention, wrote in these terms to M. Necker: 'Tell your Genevese that their envoy extraordinary shall not set a foot within my door, and that I will treat with none but you;' and Madame de S. adds, 'My father has told me that this first success of his political career was that which gave him the most lively pleasure.' Two conversa-

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tions with M. *de Maurepas* determined that minister to propose M. NECKER as director of the royal treasury. During a short illness under which M. *de Maurepas* laboured, on the very first occasion in which the director transacted business alone with the king, he obtained the place of minister of the marine, for the Marshal *de Castries*. We do not regard this last trait as redounding much to the honour of M. NECKER, since it shews a turn for intrigue, as well as an imprudent and precipitate ambition; and we are told that it rendered the old minister jealous of his protégé. The daughter indeed asserts that her father possessed the first rate talents for intrigue, but that he disdained to make use of them; and that his powers of mind had no bounds but those which his virtues assigned to them. The following anecdote, if correct, is curious, and speaks much in favour of the abilities of this celebrated man.—'About the end of the year 1789', says Madame DE S., '*Mirabeau* had an interview with my father, the object of which was to induce the latter to engage the king to take the former into the ministry. My father, while he did justice to the superior talents of *Mirabeau*, declared that he could not be his colleague. "My power," said he, "arises out of my moral character; you have too strong a mind not to perceive one day the necessity of this support; in the mean time, the actual state of things may render it fit that you should be a minister, but we cannot act together in that character." Madame DE STAEL asserts that *Mirabeau*, on his return, wrote remarks on the conversation, of which she is in possession; and in which he states that he was very much struck with the superiority of mind of M. NECKER, and that he ordered a bust of him for his country villa. Thus favourable, she says, 'was the opinion of *Mirabeau* to the comptroller of the finances, at the time that he inveighed so much against him at the tribune of the assembly.'

M. NECKER having suppressed a great number of places, in consequence of which several of the occupiers of them became deprived of the comforts though not of the necessaries of life, he resolved to derive no emolument from his own situation, and not to render it in any way a personal benefit: a determination which precluded him from ever appointing a friend or relation to any of the places of which he had the disposal. He laboured night and day, without relaxation, and his only visitors were those who complained of the injuries which they suffered from the suppression of their offices. The time of Madame NECKER was wholly occupied in superintending the prisons and hospitals; and thus did this couple forego all pleasure, and all the gratifications that might be drawn from their elevated station: their sole reward was public esteem; the testimonies of which,

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we are told, were of the most flattering kind, whether their numbers, or the rank and character of the persons offering them are considered. Mad. DE S. promises to make public a selection of the letters addressed to her father; from which it will appear that the measure of the double representation of the *Tiers Etat*, for which he has been so much blamed, had been sollicited by all the most eminent and enlightened men of France, and by many who afterward severely censured the proceeding. The Empress Catherine, in her correspondence at this time, speaks of him as the first man in Europe, as a man who left all his contemporaries far behind him in glory. "M. NECKER," says she, "is no longer in place. This is a pretty dream for France, and a grand victory in favour of its enemies. The king of France had taken a step to great glory." The sentiments of the royal and illustrious writer are less extravagant than many may be ready to suppose. Had M. NECKER been confined to the administration of the finances, and had steadily preserved and been protected in that post, the derangements which afterward took place would never have happened; and history would not have had to record the subversion of the monarchy, and the interminable calamities which that event has entailed on Europe. The administrator of the Finances carried with him into his retreat the regrets of France; and he received invitations from the kings of Poland and Naples, and from the Emperor, to come and preside over the finances of their respective kingdoms: but his love of France made him decline each of their offers. In his retirement, he employed himself on his work respecting *the Administration of the Finances*, of which a hundred thousand copies were sold, and which made the fortune of three or four booksellers.

Madame DE STAEL considers the production of the treatise on *the Importance of Religious Opinions*, in the interval between his first and second ministry, as a proof of the serenity of mind which M. NECKER enjoyed. This work, she says, had no relation whatever to the objects of his administration; it could not advance his present interests; and it was only among posterity that it could confer glory on him. He even incurred the risk, by this publication, of losing some of his most distinguished partisans. He was the first, and the only one among the distinguished writers of the day, who animadverted on the tendency to irreligion. This tendency, so much to be lamented, Madame DE S. remarks, had grown out of the commendable struggle which had been maintained against intolerance and superstition. M. NECKER combated alone against this baneful and fatal propensity. He did not appear the enemy of philosophy, but displayed that noble enthusiasm for religion, without which reason has no

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guide, imagination no object, and in the absence of which virtue is without reward, and sensibility becomes merely a name.

Speaking of the second ministry of M. NECKER, the fair writer takes notice of the severity with which he has been treated by all the partisans of the old government, and by the class termed Aristocrates, the persons who would make no concessions, and who sedulously discouraged all changes. In the political life of her father, which this lady here promises to give to the public, she pledges herself to shew that this party, from the beginning of the convulsions, has mistaken its real interests, and formed the most erroneous judgment of events and of men. We are of opinion that this severe sentence, passed on a body in which are to be found the most agreeable qualities of our nature, accompanied by high attainments and shining accomplishments, as well as a great share of moral worth, is yet in no tittle overstrained. To the unyielding and haughty conduct of this order at one time, and to its subsequent timidity at another, we ascribe that deluge of calamity which, visiting France first, has since so widely extended itself. It is here positively asserted that it was never the object of M. NECKER to effect a revolution in France, and that the king had given his promise to assemble the States General before the return of the former to power in 1788. That minister is made farther to say that, whatever might have been his particular opinions, he held himself inviolably tied down not to propose, nor countenance, any measure inconsistent with the obligations by which he was bound to the king in virtue of his place. A letter here inserted shews that, on his third recall, he anticipated the difficulties which awaited him, and the disgrace which ultimately ensued.

The following is a beautiful apostrophe of Madame DE S.; 'I allow the jealous to envy grandeur, fortune, beauty, youth, and all those gifts which embellish the exterior of life, but let spare the eminent distinctions of mind and understanding; for such are the ravages which they cause in the bosom that possesses them, that it is unjust to hate them!'

The return of the banished minister from Bâle, which was in its whole course one triumphal procession, occasions Madame DE S. for a moment to forget all the mortifications experienced by herself and her family. So delightful does the recollection seem to be, and so animated is the picture which she gives of this transaction, that we are tempted to lay it before our readers. Having stated the forebodings of her father, and the reverses which succeeded she exclaims:

'But what a moment of happiness was that journey from Bâle to Paris! Nothing equal to it ever happened to a man who was not the sovereign

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sovereign of a country. The French nation, so animated in the expression of its feelings, delivered itself up to a hope which was altogether new to it, and of which it had not yet learned the limits Liberty was only known to the enlightened class by the noble sentiments which it inspires, and to the people as the promised remedy for their privations and pains. M. Necker appeared the forerunner of this much expected blessing. The most lively acclamations accompanied him at every step; the women at a distance in the fields knelt wherever his carriage passed by; the first citizens in each place on his road dismounted his postilions, in order to discharge their office themselves; and in the cities, the horses were unharnessed, and the carriage drawn by the inhabitants. Never did a man who did not sit upon a throne enjoy to so great a degree the affections of the people!'

This recalled minister exerted the temporary authority, with which he was thus invested, in a manner that does him the highest credit; *viz.* in protecting, as far as he was able, the fugitives whom the popular fury at this time obliged to quit their country. Madame de S. describes with superior ability her sensations on occasion of the rejoicings testified on her father's entrance into Paris; 'when' says she, 'I became again myself, I felt that I had touched on the extreme of possible happiness.'

The subsequent pages shew how ingeniously Fancy may be busied in heightening the value of a beloved object:

'No person could like my father inspire those around him with a confidence in his protection that was almost supernatural: there were no difficulties in which he could not find resources; he knew how to provide against each extremity without putting any thing to hazard. In the troubles of France, I thought myself secure under his shelter; and it seemed as if his genius could ward every evil from me. If danger did overtake me, I was sure he would come to my assistance; and his eloquent aspect, his venerable accents, would, I was confident, rescue me from the depth of dungeons, should I have the misfortune to be thrown into them. I called him my tutelary angel. It was thus that I felt in respect to his guardian influence; I thought that the cast of my destiny more concerned him than myself; I looked to him as to one who would repair my faults; and nothing appeared to me hopeless while he lived. It was not till I lost him that I learned what terror was, and that I was bereaved of the hope of youth, to which nothing appears impossible. I reckoned his power my own, and my confidence reposed in his support. Exists there still a protecting genius around me? will it tell me what I ought to shun, and what to wish? will it guide my steps, will it cover my infants with its wings; can I collect it sufficiently within my heart to consult and understand it?'

Similar enthusiasm appears in the following passage; which presents a highly drawn but just picture of the parent, and displays the filial affection and the original powers of the daughter who has sketched it.

'If

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'If I had been told: "you shall be reduced to the most complete poverty, but your father shall be restored to you again young, and he shall be the companion of your life;" – the future would have appeared to me most delicious. I should have beheld my parent's great mind re-commencing our fortune, his dignity supporting my consequence, his versatility enlivening my days, and his ingenuous devotion to that which he loved pointing to my view a thousand enjoyments within the limits of hope and moderation. "You will lose what is deemed most precious, but your father will be your cotemporary, he will give you the supporting arm, you will hear his voice, in every step that you take he will accompany you;"—I should far prefer to any independence this consolatory and cheering support.'

The stamp of genius is never more visible, than in the case of beaten topics being rendered impressive, and represented in novel points of view. The *morceau* here subjoined has called forth from us this observation. Mad. DE S. is concluding a lively description of the anxieties felt for her by her venerable parent:

'Alas! one is thus loved only by a father, by an aged father who does not reckon on living much longer; our cotemporaries are so confident in regard to themselves, and with respect to us! Delicious is the protection extended to us by the generation which precedes us! Disinterested love! love which makes us every moment conscious that we are young, that we are loved, and that the world is still ours! Ah! when this generation is cut off, we are in our turn placed in front of our last enemy, and it will be soon our fate to engage with him.'

If the fastidious should charge Madame DE S. with having too much withdrawn the curtain of domestic feelings, the reader of taste and sentiment will not dwell on the impropriety, but own his obligations to a writer who has been able to render a narrative of private incidents, and a description of individual impressions, interesting and instructive. If traits of family vanity be frequent in these pages, the original turns, the fine sentiments, and the occasional beauties of language which grace them, will secure a ready and complete pardon to the fair offender, from every candid mind.

We have mentioned that Madame DE STAEL promises to favour the world with a history of her father's political life; and we shall defer our observations on his character until the appearance of that announced publication. We have been indulgent to this lady, while paying a tribute to the talents and worth of her amiable and venerable relative: but we would apprize her that the same excuses will not serve when she comes to narrate and descant on the public transactions of M. NECKER; that the historian's duty is sacred; that it requires him to be

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of no family, sect, or country, and to sacrifice the ties of blood and the endearments of friendship to the stern requisitions of truth.

The literary remains of M. Necker, here communicated, consist for the most part of loose hints and detached thoughts; several of which are in the form of aphorisms. The collection exhibits various degrees of merit; and the most that can be said of it is, that some of these little pieces and *jeux d' ésprit* will not derogate from the past fame of the writer as an author.

The first piece approaches more the form of an essay than any of the others. Its subject is the Corn Trade; its design is to recommend a medium between absolute restraint and complete freedom in this traffic; and legislators are blamed for having enacted nothing definite on this great head of political economy. It is not a little curious that, in this paper, in which the complaint is made, not a single idea is furnished that can guide the statesman who may admit it to be just, and be desirous to remove the ground of it: the whole being occupied by lively declamations on different collateral matters. Referring to the union of morals and politics, the author observes:

'Tiberius had as much power as the Antonines, and Louis XI. as much as Louis IX: but ought it to be thence concluded, as is now done, that there is no necessary union between morals and politics? I am far from thinking so. The art of being obeyed, and the art of inspiring fear, form not the whole of politics; this word recalls to our mind the art of making oneself loved, that of governing without violence, and that of securing the regards of other nations.

'You cite also the success of bad faith, the triumphs of hypocrisy, and you laugh at private morals, and make a jest of public virtue: but is it not as an exception, as an interruption to the established order of things, that vice confers a momentary advantage: there would be no scope for knaves, if society were not partly composed of honest men; and the politics of *Machiavelli* can only be prescribed on the supposition that the greater number of princes observe the laws of morality.'

Some of the thoughts in these papers prove M. Necker to have been a nice observer of men and manners. He tells us that the individuals in France, who were admitted to be of high personal consequence, were few in number, and that it was usual to reckon them up. Consideration was not held rightfully to belong to any of the advantages on which we set the highest value: but riches, birth, and other distinctions, if nobly used, became the means which led to it.

'I have well known (he says) the persons who were regarded as of the first consideration in France; and they were indebted for it less

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less to high situations, than to an union of qualities in harmony with each other. An habitual decency in their discourse and in their conduct, ease of behaviour, propriety of manners, taste in their attentions, and a sort of restraint which kept familiarity in check, were the qualities which distinguished the demeanour of these favoured and respected characters.

'We ought to be sensible to our own value, and it is proper that others should perceive it; we ought as it were to accredit ourselves within certain limits. Our opinion of ourselves cannot be without consequences, for we must have a better knowlege of our own qualities than it is in the power of others to acquire; by too great modesty, we run the risk of being wrongly appreciated, of being taken for what we pass ourselves to be. This humility may be amiable, but it will never raise us to consequence.'

M. Necker is of opinion that a knowlege of mankind is only to be attained by passing through three absolutely different situations in life:—the state of *inferiority*, which obliges us to consult the inclinations of others, and to exert all our power to gain their good will; the condition of *equality*, which will make us study the various passions of men; and that of *superiority*, which affords the opportunity of observing our fellow-creatures, when on their good behaviour.

Madam de S. speaks highly in commendation of her father's paper on the *Happiness of Fools*. The idea which pervades it is the same with that which is so finely pursued in the *Encomium Moriæ*; with only this difference, that the view here taken of the subject is more confined, and the irony less delicate.—The fragment on the State of Manners in France in 1786 shews the pencil of a superior hand, fully master of his art, and of his subject. We regard it as a very important article in the history of that period, and affording matter for abundant reflection.

'The German etiquette (it is remarked) does not prevail in France, nor are civil distinctions of rank immutably fixed there, as in England. It is opinion alone, as it reigns in the high world, that determines the regard which is to be shewn to the various stations of men. There is a complete system in these matters: but it is no where to be found in writing; and it is become gradually so fine and subtle, that it may be called the legislation of *matters understood*; a designation which is the more just, because, though no one claims a right, it is nevertheless most clear that each looks to a certain place as his due. It was the pride of a mistress of a house, and especially of a great lady, to allow it to be seen that she was acquainted with all these differences, but at the same time to conduct herself with delicacy, so as to give no one any just cause of complaint. A great lady, who holds a circle, has a fixed place; and her seat is of a particular make, though simple and commodious, in order that it may be supposed that she does not put herself in any degree out of her

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her way when she sees company. A piece of embroidery lies before her; through which, when she employs herself with it, she passes her needle with a noble negligence. This occupation dispenses with the lady's rising when visitors enter her apartment; a compliment which she pays only to princes of the blood, to foreign ladies of the first distinction, to Generals who have just gained a battle, or to a minister high in favour. A particular manner is shewn to persons of an uncertain rank, which is to signify to them that they are countenanced: but, if they assume too much, an interrogation in a marked tone, terminating with a shrill accent, apprizes them of their presumption. More address is necessary towards persons of nearly the same rank with ourselves. Taste and feeling regulate the conduct of the mistress of a great house; and these are her guides in the distinctions which she makes in the midst of her saloon. Women of condition, women of quality, titled women, women of historic name, women of high personal birth, but united to a husband who is inferior to them, women who have raised themselves by their marriage, women who attract by play or suppers,—a German may ascertain the heraldic claims of these persons: but to seize immediately the imperceptible differences, and to adapt the tone, forms, and manner to them, is quite another matter: French dexterity, and extensive intercourse with the world, are alone equal to effect this. It is with self-love, which is most easily irritated, that all this dealing takes place; for which reason, the slightest fault is sure to be noticed. The same nicety and refinement regulate the conduct of individuals, with regard to the rank which they claim in society. These, the moment they have entered the saloon, have a manner of accosting others, of seating themselves, and of looking around them, which shew in what light they behold themselves as compared with others. They convey their meaning also by a sort of drawl or langour of the voice, and by the reserve or frankness which they assume; and when they apportion the respect to be shewn, they effect it by the varied mode of their reverence, which admits of endless gradations, from a slight movement of the shoulder to that noble and respectful homage which so few, even of the court ladies, know how to pay. The slow bend, the downcast eyes, the figure upright, the manner of resuming one's position, modestly regarding the accosted, and gracefully throwing the body back; all this is more fine and delicate than any thing expressed by words can be, and is most expressive as a mark of respect.

'The passage from the drawing to the dining room awakens a singular conflict between jarring claims to precedence. The men no longer give the hand to the women, as in former times; this usage, it is probable, grew obsolete as the system of vanities became more subtle; it was necessary to put the men out of the question, because they would inevitably introduce what was positive into the affair. Behold the women in a body approach the door of the drawing room: observing their composed air, we should conclude that no idea of rivalship possessed their minds; while most probably it is the only one which engages their thoughts at that moment. Some, feigning utter inattention, are the first at the door; there, perceiving all at once that they are not followed, they express themselves surprized at their

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their own forwardness, or burst out into a loud laugh: they retreat a little way at the same time. They are then told, "Come, ladies, walk on;" those who addressed them thus have recovered their advantage; for *walk on* is a sort of permission. The superiority is still more marked when they say, "Walk on, ladies, you are next the door," since the reason of the permission is stated. Malice is gratified by saying, "Come, Madame la Maréchale, nobody will walk on before you." The Maréchale complies, and walks on first. Others then follow; while some, dreading the conflict, remain behind; one drops her fan in order to have a pretence for retreating to pick it up; another takes a gentleman's arm, and slackens her pace in order to talk to him; and a third stops at a glass to adjust her hair; thus in this short march high claims are preferred, opposed, supported, discussed, and settled by signs intelligible only to adepts, and with little of the help of language.

'This struggle between vanities does not take place among men; whose rival pretensions extend to objects more marked. We all know that the first ranks of society have successively adopted marks of distinction, which they have quitted only at the moment when persons of the second class assumed them. They have run the course of every emblem of this kind, from the high feathers down to the beaked shoe; and from the multiplication of titles to the usage of *thee* and *thou*, as practised by the Spanish grandees of the most antient race. Every thing of this sort seems to be exhausted: but let vanity alone; it will find new modes of asserting its claim. A *Montmorençi* maintained, in a circle in which I was, that all the turns of language, which designated superiority of rank and condition, had sunken into discredit by the uses to which they had been applied. A little time afterward, this same *Montmorençi*, speaking of a person supposed to be connected with his house, said that it was a mistake, and added, "this person and ourselves (*nous autres*) are at variance." The *nous autres* was a chosen expression; it is in appearance simple, and is in common use, but it was meant to denote the superior lineage of this high family.'

A paper of this sort from a great minister of state will probably occasion surprize in most of our readers; and a fictitious tale that concludes the volume, and which only wants polish, will in all likelihood produce a similar effect, while they severally shew the singular versatility of M. NECKER's mind.

ART. IV. *Annales du Muséum National*, &c.; *i. e.* Annals of the National Museum of Natural History. 4to. Paris. Imported by De Boffe.

[*Article continued from Appendix to Vol.* XLIV.]

THE bulk which this work has already gained, the expedition with which it is published, and the multitude of articles which it embraces, must oblige us to deviate from our former practice

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practice of mentioning every paper, and must restrict us to a slight notice of many of the memoirs in the subsequent *cahiers* or numbers. We have already given the substance of the first paper in No. 7. which forms a kind of introduction to Vol. II., and which includes the history of the Museum from 1643 to 1683. Next succeed *Observations on the mineral Substance called Hornblend, of Labradore, by M.* HAÜY, &c. and a *Memoir on the fossil tusk of an Elephant found bedded in volcanic tuffa, in the Commune Darbres, in the department of Ardeche*, by M. FAUJAS-SAINT-FOND. This tusk was discovered by accident, as a naturalist was digging for water in his garden, and is pronounced to have belonged to an elephant of the same kind with those of Asia; since it has neither the contour nor the bend of those which are found in Siberia.

Anatomical Observations on the Crocodile of the Nile, by E. GEOFFROY. These observations, which were read at the last sitting of the Egyptian Institute, are introduced by the author's reflections on the melancholy termination of the French expedition to Egypt.

'Two disastrous combats,' he says, 'and the loss of another important battle, made us foresee that our enemies, availing themselves of the misunderstanding which subsisted between the chiefs of our army, would snatch from us the most precious of our colonies; a country, the conquest of which had cost us so many struggles and sacrifices, the famous Egypt; in short, which we had completely explored, which we had seen covered with monuments contemporaneous with the heroic ages, and which appeared to us to possess a fertility surpassing the account which had been given of it. It was at the moment when we were informed of our disasters, and when the sad news raised against us *all the population* of Egypt, that a crocodile was brought to me, which had been conducted alive from Cairo, but which had now been dead three days. In more happy times, I had expressed a strong desire of dissecting an animal so celebrated by different writers: but then, overwhelmed by those painful sensations which had taken possession of every Frenchman, I hesitated to undertake this operation. Perceiving, however, that I should not find another occasion, if I suffered the present to escape, and persuaded as I had always been that the sort of courage which belonged to travellers, placed in the difficult circumstances in which I then found myself, was that of resignation, I occupied my thoughts with nothing farther than the crocodile which was then before me: but I was not able to proceed to a perfectly regular dissection, nor to direct my attention to all the organs which appeared susceptible of it. I was restrained by the putrefaction which had commenced when the crocodile was brought to me, and by the wish to preserve his skin entire. As, moreover, this animal had attracted the notice of several distinguished anatomists, I conceived that it would be sufficient for me to confine myself to the consideration of those organs which had escaped the examination of my predecessors, so that

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my labours might furnish some additions to the natural history of the crocodile.'

M. GEOFFROY proceeds, after this exordium, to describe 1st. The manner in which the crocodile moves its jaws. 2. The organs of digestion. 3. Organs of respiration. 4. Organs of generation. 5. The liver. 6. The other viscera. This naturalist points out in what respects the crocodile differs from the Lizard (*Lacerta*), in which genus it has been classed by Linné; and the paper concludes by charging the English who were in Egypt with an attempt to turn the author into ridicule, by caricaturing him as employed in taming crocodiles. Two illustrative plates are subjoined to this and the subsequent memoir, *viz.*

A Notice of a new Kind of Crocodile of America, by the same. General *Leclerc* having been informed by some of his officers, who had served in Egypt, that the crocodile of St. Domingo displayed a very near resemblance to those of the Nile he sent two from that island to France for the purpose of ascertaining this fact. The result of the comparison, which these specimens enabled M. GEOFFROY to institute, was that the crocodile of the Nile and of St. Domingo differed in so many particulars as to furnish some ground for concluding that they were two distinct species. He abstains, however, from stating this as a positive fact, being ignorant of the changes which this animal undergoes in the different stages of its life, and of the operation of climate and local circumstances.

We pass over the paper *on the Fosils in the environs of Paris*, by M. LAMARCK, in order to attend to the *Biographical notice of the Artist Maréchal*, by M. DELESNF.—We here learn that *Nicolas Maréchal*, whose death is said by his eulogist to have caused a vacancy in the Museum which will not be easily filled, was born at Paris, March 21. 1753. Devoting himself to painting, he was placed with M. *Brenet*, who was at that time the chief painter of the French Academy; and for the purpose of perfecting himself in this art, he devoted his attention to the accessary studies of zoology, comparative anatomy, and perspective. In the year 3. he was attached to the Museum in the capacity of zoological painter. The merit of this artist consisted in the extreme accuracy with which he painted animals; and as he possessed perseverance equal to his taste, he has left a rich collection of drawings. His water-colour delineations of the sheep of Rambouillet are said to be his *chef d'œuvres*. Objects of the vegetable and fosil kingdoms were also depicted by him. Death, however, interrupted the career of his genius. Attacked by a stomach complaint which proved incurable, he departed this life on the 30th of *Frimaire*: but in what year the Memoir unaccountably

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countably does not state. M. DELEUSE commences his paper with telling us that the Museum had just sustained a great loss by the death of *Maréchal:* but as the paper itself is not dated, we are not sure whether this event happened in 1802 or 1803, The French are very negligent of dates.

The correspondence at the end of this number includes an account of the Teak tree; which, it is remarked, would be of the greatest importance if it could possibly be naturalized in France; since it grows to a vast size, and produces wood which, while it is peculiarly adapted to the construction of ships, is not attacked by those worms which destroy European timber. The hope, however, of raising a forest of teak trees in France is not cherished.—We are glad to learn that the attention of our countrymen has been directed to this valuable tree; and that some ships of war have already been built with it in India.

The arrival of several botanical articles at the Museum is next announced, with a letter from M. *Van Marum to* M. *Faujas-St.-Fond*, dated Haarlem, Jan. 1. 1803, containing remarks on the formation of peat, to which it is supposed that the *Conferva rivularis* greatly contributes.

No. 8. contains *A Memoir on a new variety of Quartz*, by M. HAÜY; *Memoir on a large Tooth of a Shark, and on a fossil Tortoise Shell found in the quarries in the environs of Paris*, By M. FAUJAS-ST. FOND; *and an Analysis of the earth of Umber of Cologne, reported by M. Faujas*, by M. BRONGNIART. The history of the working of the mines in which this substance is found, and of preparing it for use, having been already given in No. 6, the professor here undertakes to complete the history of this earth, by subjecting it to chemical analysis, and offering some ideas respecting its formation, and the uses to which it may be applied. By exposing this earth of Cologne to the operation of fire and of other chemical agents, the opinion of *M. Faujas*, that it consisted of a fossil wood decomposed, is fully confirmed. To painters, this knowlege may be of service.

Memoir on Jalap. By M. DESFONTAINES.—This paper contains a curious account of a drug unknown to the Greeks and Arabians, and for which we are indebted to the discovery of the New World. Dr. Lewis, in his *Materia Medica*, speaks of it as the dried root of the *Mirabilis Peruviana:* but his editor, Dr. Aikin, remarks "that the later botanists are not perfectly agreed concerning the genus of the plant producing the jalap." The Memoir before us, which tends to ascertain this point, must be acceptable to the medical student. We are here informed that the plant producing the Jalap grows spontaneously in Mexico, in the vicinity of the city of Xalapa, from which

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it takes its name, and also in the neighbourhood of Vera Cruz; and that the root, which is the only part employed in medicine, attains to the weight of 15, and sometimes to 25*lb.* The night-blowing Marvel of Peru, (*la belle de nuit*) *Mirabilis longi-flora*, being known to produce a root similar to that from which Jalap is procured, botanists were easily led to suppose that the drug of the shops came from a plant of the same kind: but farther inquiries have proved that the true Jalap plant is of the class of climbers, and may be thus described: *Convolvulus caule volubili, tuberculoso; foliis cordato-ovatis, subrugosis, subtus villosis, integris aut lobatis; pedunculis uni vel multifloris; filamentis basi tomentosis; semine lanigero.* A plate of the *Convolvulus Jalapa* is subjoined, exhibiting the leaf, stalk, flower, anthers, pistillum, capsule, seed, *&c.* and another gives a representation of its singular root. The Museum boasts of being in possession of the true Convolvulus Jalapa, which M. *Thiery de Menonville*, in an account of this plant taken at Vera Cruz in 1777, thus describes: "*Habitat in arenosis siccis in Vera-Cruce, arena hæc vento solvitur, nullæ terræ adhæret, nec consistentiam habet. Facilè educatur et colitur Jalapium. Ponderis 12, 15 et 20 librarum radices conservavi in meo cubiculo truncatas. Stolones et gemmas emittebant more Napi.*"

M. DESFONTAINES concludes this memoir with remarking that the family of climbers is celebrated for affording strong purgatives; that besides Jalap, it has *Convolvulus scammonia, C. turpetum, C. mechoacana. C. soldanella, & C. sepium*; and that analogy would incline us to believe that this comprehensive genus includes others which possess the same property.

Observations on the Family of amaranthine plants, by M. JUSSIEU, and the Memoir on the *Vieusseuxia glaucopis*, must not detain us.

A description of the school of useful Plants in the rural and domestic economy established in the national Garden of plants at Paris, by A. THOUIN, contains more particulars than we can detail, and many of which would not be very interesting to the English reader. A table of the distribution of herbaceous plants gives, at one view, the classes, sections, series, names, and numbers. Plants are here arranged under three grand divisions, viz. those which contribute to the nourishment of man, those which feed cattle, and those which are employed in the arts.

The correspondence includes an interesting letter from M. HUMBOLDT, dated Lima, Nov. 25. 1802, containing an account of his travels in South America; from which we shall extract a short description of the province of Quito.

"This province, which is situated on the most elevated plain in the world, and which has been rent by the grand catastrophe of Feb. 4. 1797

4. 1797, has opened a most extensive field of physical observation. Here are volcanoes so enormous as to cause the flame often to ascend 3000 feet; which nevertheless do not produce one drop of running lava, but which vomit forth water, sulphuric hydrogene gas, mud, and carbonated argil. Since the year 1797, the whole of this part of the world has been in agitation: we experience at every instant frightful shocks: and the subterraneous noise in the plains of Rio Bamba resembles that of a mountain falling to pieces under our feet. Atmospheric air, and moistened earth, (for all these volcanoes are in a decomposed porphyry,) appear to be the grand agents in these combustions and subterraneous fermentations.

'It was till now believed at Quito that the rarefaction of the air, at the elevation of 2,470 toises, was the greatest which men could endure. In the month of March 1802, we passed some days on the vast plains surrounding the volcano of Antisana, at 2,107 toises elevation, where the oxen, when we chased them, vomited blood. On the 16th of March, we discovered a path in the snow on which we mounted to the height of 2,773 toises. The air contained 0,008 of carbonic acid, 0,218 of oxygene, and 0,744 of azote. It was not cold, but the blood gushed out from our lips and eyes. In my expedition of June 23, 1802, to Chimboraço, we proved that, with patience, man might sustain a very great rarefaction of the air. We carried our instruments on Chimboraço as high as 3,031 toises, and saw the mercury descend in the barometer to 13 inches and 11,2 lines.'

By two operations, M. HUMBOLDT found the top of Chimboraço to be 3,267 toises above the level of the sea. It has often been asserted, he adds, that this mountain is of granite, but he found not a single atom. It is a bed of porphyry, 1,900 toises thick, intermixed with vitreous feld-spath, &c.

The letter closes with a reference to the botanical treasures which the writer had discovered: but here we must not dilate; though we cannot help congratulating our readers that, to the bread-fruit-tree and the butter-tree, M. HUMBOLDT has added the *milk-tree*, or, as the Indians call it, the *vegetable cow*.

Of the papers in No. 9. we shall notice only *Observations on animal Calculi, compared with those of Man*. By M. FOURCROY. Messrs. VAUQUELIN and FOURCROY having, in a former Memoir, given a description of the various kinds of matter found in different animal concretions, the latter has comprized in this paper the several kinds of compound calculi, considered with a reference to animals in general. His object here is to explain the substances of which animal concretions consist; substances which for a long time have been either entirely misunderstood, or confounded with each other, under the erroneous denomination of absorbent earth, tartar, or chalk. He observes that before M. VAUQUELIN and he had instituted an exact and detailed

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analysis of animal concretions, for the purpose of discovering the nature of the calculi in the human bladder, they had no suspicion that these calculi could have differed so much as they were found to do, from each other in their component parts. In the next place, they were surprised to mark the difference which exists between the urinary calculi, whether in the kidnies or the bladder, of the principal domestic animals and those of man. In examining the urine of the horse, the camel, the elephant, the sheep, and the rabbit, an analogy was found to subsist between the nature of the urine and that of the urinary calculi of all domestic *mammiferes*. This urine never contains earthy phosphates, nor alkaline phosphates. Carbonate of lime and chalk constitute the spontaneous deposits, which are seen in stables where horses are kept, and their urinary concretions are formed of the same matter. On the other hand, these gentlemen found phosphate of lime in the dry residuum of the sweat of horses, which forms a light and greyish crust on their hair. Thus nature evacuates from their bodies the superabundance of calcareous phosphate, as well by the pores of the skin as by the urinary canal. This mode of evacuation is the reverse of that which occurs in man.

It is remarked of *bezoar stones*, that 'they are always formed of phosphate of lime, and rarely of the acid phosphate of lime, which proves that they appertain to the intestines;' and M. FOURCROY tells us that he has often found in the centre of the occidental bezoars, and which served them as a nucleus, kernels of fruit, little stems, &c. which sufficiently announce their formation to have been in the intestines.

The horse is very subject to this sort of concretions. They are commonly of a grey colour, and have for their basis either hay or oats. Messrs. VAUQUELIN and FOURCROY having been occupied in experiments on the ashes of certain nourishing vegetables, instituted for the purpose of ascertaining the quantity of phosphate of lime which they contained; they found in these ashes a quantity of phosphate of magnesia, even in the proportion of the hundredth part of the weight of vegetables employed; and they adduce this circumstance as decisive evidence of the origin of the concretions in the intestines of animals. M. FOURCROY, however, confesses that he cannot so easily assign the reason of the formation of occidental bezoars, so commonly occurring in *mammiferes*, and so rarely if ever found in man. He thinks that the horizontal posture of the former, and the erect position of man, will not sufficiently explain the phænomenon: but to what cause must we assign it; for the vegetable aliment of both equally contains phosphate of magnesia, and if any difference exists, the vegetables eaten by man include more of it than

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than those on which the brutes feed. M. FOURCROY hopes that, since bezoars, as articles of medicinal traffic, are now gone out of fashion, their history will not continue to be concealed.

No. 10. consists of *Observations on the Rheum ribes, Lin. by* M. DESFONTAINES;—*On the family of night-blowing plants (plantes nyctagenées *) by* M. A. L. JUSSIEU;—*On a Kind of Serpent which has not hitherto been described, called Erpeton tentaculatus, by* M. LACÉPÈDE;—*Description of a new kind of Pic, or, wood-pecker found at Porto-Rico, by* F. M. DAUDIN;—*Memoir on the genus Laplysia, commonly called the Sea Hare, on its anatomy, and on some of its species, by* M. G. CUVIER;—and *a continuation of the memoir on the fossils in the environs of Paris, by* M. LAMARCK; but we must abstain from any particular notice of their contents, and must even be silent respecting M. CUVIER's long and ingenious paper on that singular animal the Sea Hare; in order to afford room for some farther extracts from the *Letters of* M. DE HUMBOLDT, to his brother, given in the Correspondence, which are too curious and entertaining to be altogether withholden. The region of Peru, so imperfectly known to Europeans, presents such august features of nature, and is so admirably depicted by this inquisitive traveller, that we follow him in his details with no inconsiderable satisfaction. Passing the summit of the Cordilleras along the most frightful precipices, he arrived at the town of Pasto, situated at the foot of a terrible volcano, and thus describes his subsequent journey:

'The road to and from this little town, where we passed the Christmas festival, and where we were received with the warmest hospitality, is the most tremendous in the world. It lies through thick forests in the midst of morasses, into which the mules plunge half-way up their bodies: and we pass through ravines so deep and narrow, that we seem to be entering the galleries of a mine. The roads are also paved with the bones of mules which have perished through cold or fatigue. All the province of Pasto, including the environs of Guachucal and Turqueres is one plain of ice surrounded by volcanoes which continually emit torrents of smoke. The miserable inhabitants of these deserts have no other food than potatoes; and if these fail, which happened last year, they repair to the mountains to eat the trunk of a small tree, called *achupalla* (*Pourretia pitcarnia*): but this tree being also the food of the bears of the Andes, the latter often dispute with them the only nourishment which these elevated regions afford. After having been soaked with the rain, day and

* We are informed in a note that M. *Royen*, unwilling to employ the adjective *Mirabilis* to denote this genus, preferred the term *Nyctage*, composed of two Greek words, which signify *admirable by night*; and that this new word is adopted with a little change of termination as preferable to the old term *Mirabilis*.

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night, during the space of two months, and having narrowly escaped being drowned near the small village of Ibarra, by a very sudden flood, accompanied by an earthquake, we arrived Jan. 6. 1802. at Quito; where the Marquis de Silvaalegre prepared for us a handsome house, which, after so many fatigues, offered all the conveniences that we could desire at Paris or London.'

The succeeding account of the city of Quito, of the dreadful earthquake which it experienced, and of the little impression which this awful event has made on the pleasurable disposition of the inhabitants, would excite some surprise; did we not know that habit is a great reconciler, and that dangers, to which we are continually liable, make very little impression.

'The city of Quito is beautiful, but the atmosphere is dark and cloudy, the neighbouring mountains present little verdure, and the cold is very considerable. The great earthquake of Feb. 4. 1797. which overturned the whole province and destroyed at one instant from 35 to 40 thousand human beings, has so changed the temperature of the air, that there the thermometer of Reaumur commonly stands at 4—10°. and rarely ascends to 16 or 17°. while *Bouquer* generally saw it at 15 or 16°. Since this catastrophe, constant earthquakes and some shocks have been experienced. It is probable that all the high part of this province is one volcano. The mountains of *Cotopoxi* and *Pichincha* are only little ridges, to which the craters form different chimnies, all leading to the same cavity. The earthquake of 1797 has unfortunately confirmed this hypothesis, for the earth every where opened and vomited sulphur, water, &c. In spite, however, of all these horrors and dangers with which nature has encompassed them, the inhabitants of Quito are gay, lively, and amiable. The city breathes nothing but pleasure and luxury, and perhaps in no place can be found a more decided or more general taste for diversions. Thus man accustoms himself to sleep soundly on the brink of a precipice.'

We must omit the traveller's adventurous journey to the top of Pichincha, undertaken for the purpose of exploring the crater of its volcano. The height of this mountain he found to be 2,477 toises, and the diameter of the crater 754. Favoured by the weather in his visit to the volcano of Antisana, he mounted to the height of 2,773 toises, where the barometer sunk to 14 inches 7 lines; and where, owing to the extreme rarity of the air, blood gushed from the lips, gums, and eyes, great weakness was experienced, and one of the party fainted.

In the subsequent pages, M. HUMBOLDT repeats an account of his visit to the immense colossus of Chimboraço, giving the admeasurements which we have above transcribed. He supposes the top of this most stupendous of mountains to be the crater of an extinguished volcano, which, if rekindled, must destroy the whole province.

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During the writer's stay at Rio Bamba, he met with a literary curiosity, viz. an antient Indian MS. written in the language of Paraguay, which contains an account of the memorable epoch of the eruption of the mountain called *Nevado del Attas*. This must have been the highest mountain in the world, even more elevated than Chimboraço, and the Indians call it *Capaurcu*, or the chief of mountains. The eruption of the volcano continued seven years, and the manuscript of Zapla pretends that the shower of ashes at Lican, where the king Ouainia Abomatha then reigned, was so abundant that for seven years they occasioned a perpetual night. We know not what degree of credit is due to this evidence; the traveller, however, from his examination of the region in question, inclines to think that this account cannot be *much* exaggerated.

M. HUMBOLDT also informs us that he has devoted himself to the study of the American tongues, particularly to that of the Incas, which in Peru is commonly spoken in company. It abounds with expressions so rich and varied, that young men, when they would impart the most tender sentiments to the ladies, always speak the language of the Incas, which affords resources when they have exhausted the language of Castille. Even if farther evidence were wanting, the traveller is of opinion that this language, with others equally rich, clearly proves that America formerly possessed a much higher degree of cultivation than that which the Spaniards found in 1492. He does not, however, rest his position merely on this circumstance: for he tells us that he has collected other testimonies, not only in Mexico and Peru, but even at the court of the king of Bogota, a country of which European historians are absolutely ignorant. Here the priests know how to draw a meridian, to observe the moment of the solstice, and to bring the lunar to the solar year by intercalations. Moreover, at Paramo, the savages believe that the moon is inhabited by men; and they have learnt from the traditions of their ancestors that she borrows her light from the sun.

The rest of the letter contains an account of the great sulphur mines of Tirrau,—of the remains of the magnificent palace and road of the Incas,—of experiments with crocodiles, of which M. HUMBOLDT says three kinds exist in America, called by the natives *bava*, caïman, and crocodile, and of the discovery of vast quantities of fossil bones of the elephant.

No. 11. comprises many papers, of which we can give little more than the titles.

Notice of fossil plants of different kinds which are found in the fissile beds of marley schistus, covered with lava, in the environs of Rochesauve, in the department of Ardeche. By M. FAUJAS-ST.

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ST. FOND. Among these vegetable remains, are recognized leaves of the *populus tremula*, *populus alba*, *fagus castanea*, *tibia arborea*, and *pinus pinea*; and at the same time leaves which much resemble those of the *gossipium arboreum*, of the cotton tree, and the *liquid amber*, *stryax*, which are exotics; with many others belonging to plants unknown. The figures of the leaves, as they are found in the beds of schistus, are delineated in two accompanying plates.

Memoir on the Acicarpha and the Boopis, two new plants, belonging to the family of Cinarocéphales, by M. A. L. JUSSIEU. —*Memoir on two new species of oviparous quadrupeds, which have not hitherto been described, named the Lézar monodactyle, and the Lézar tetradactyle, by* M. LACÉPÈDE.—*Description of a new species of wild ram of North America, by* E. GEOFFROY. This *ram of the mountain*, as he is called by the savages, has the body of a stag with the head of a ram; and his hair, or fleece, is short, stiff, thick, and as it were dried up.—*Notice of a new species of mammifere, imported alive by the ship Naturalist, by* E. GEOFFROY.—*Critical dissertation on the different species of the Ecrevisses, or crustaceous fish, known to the antients, and on the names which they have given to them, by* G. CUVIER. Little has descended to us from the antients, on the subject of natural history; and that little is frequently obscured by the difficulty of precisely ascertaining the objects designated by particular terms. As science must thankfully receive every attempt to remove this obscurity from antient authors, this learned dissertation of Professor CUVIER will not be overlooked. We cannot do it justice: but we shall state his explanation of the four kinds of *crustacei* described by Aristotle. The καρκινοι he pronounces to be *crabs*, the καραβοι lobsters, the καριδες perhaps prawns, and the ασακοι the large kind of lobsters.

Notice of the life and works of Hedwig. By M. DELEUSE.—We here informed that *John Hedwig* was born at Cronstadt, in Transylvania, Oct. 8, 1730; that his father was a magistrate; that he very early discovered a passion for botany; that he studied in the college of the country, and employed the time which boys commonly spend at play, in traversing the fields, searching for plants, and conveying them to his father's garden; that, losing his parent in 1747, he was sent to continue his education at Petersburgh, whence, at the end of two years, after having gone through the classes, and decided on the medical profession, he proceeded to Zittau, to study under *Gerlach* the rector of the college; that, three years afterward, he removed to Leipsic, in the university of which place he prosecuted science with ardour, and was so much admired by *Bosc*, the botanical professor, that he was invited to live with him; and that having

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having been refused the privilege of practising physic in the place of his birth, he settled in a little town of Saxony, where he married. After an inaugural oration *On the use of Emetics in acute fevers*, he received his degree of M. D. in 1759; and being furnished with microscopes by the kindness of a brother botanist, he devoted himself to the study of mosses, and made several discoveries in the class of Cryptogamiæ. The memoir then proceeds to state the loss of his wife, and the marriage of a second; the ardour of his researches as a naturalist, and his attention as a physician; his rise to fame, distinction, and elegant competence; to enumerate his several publications; and to inform us that he died of a catarrh fever on Feb. 9, 1799, aged 69. *Hedwig* is represented to have been endowed with a remarkably strong sight, by which he was assisted in his microscopical observations; his patience, exactness, and memory were remarkable; and he experienced great pleasure in communicating his knowlege to the rising generation. His eulogist states also that his qualities as a man were not less estimable than his endowments as a philosopher. In a subsequent memoir, M. DELEUSE enters on an ample analysis of *Hedwig's* works, giving an exposition of his theory of mosses and fungi; and of his system relative to the other cryptogamiæ, in order to present at one view his opinions on several facts connected with vegetable physics.

The correspondence attached to this number consists of a letter from Captain *Baudin*, on board the corvette *Le Geographe*, dated Port Jackson, New Holland, Oct. 1803; in which he speaks of the immense labours of the English at Port Jackson, and of the comfort and even splendor which he found in this colony, consisting of 6000 men.

No. 12. commences with *a Memoir on the Kleinia linearifolia, and the Actinea heterophylla, two new genera of plants, of the family of Corymbifère, by* A. L. JUSSIEU. This is followed by an *Analysis of the water of the great well in the garden of plants, situated between the Conservatory and the Gallery of Anatomy, by* M. FOURCROY;—an *Ornithological article, by* F. M. DAUDIN;—on *the culture of heaths, by* A. THOUIN; who mentions an assortment sent to the Museum by Messrs. Lee and Kennedy, nurserymen at Hammersmith (here spelt Hammersmity); and an *Extract of a memoir read at the class of the sciences of the National Institute, on the strength of the flax from the Phormium tenax of New Zealand, compared with that of the filaments of hemp, of the aloes-pitte, of flax, and of silk, by* M. LABILLARDIERE.

The numbers thus briefly noticed contain also some few papers which we have passed in silence. They constitute volume ii. of this work; which must be interesting to naturalists, and

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to which, for the benefit of consultation, a table of contents is annexed.—The plates are well engraved.

[*To be continued occasionally.*]

ART. V. *Nouveau Dictionnaire Historique*, &c. *i. e.* A new Historical Dictionary, or an abridged History of all the Persons who have distinguished themselves by Talents, Virtues, Crimes, Errors, &c. from the beginning of the World to our own Times; in which are stated impartially the Opinions of the most judicious Writers, with Respect to their Characters, Manners, and Works.—With chronological Tables, by which the Articles scattered through this Dictionary may be reduced into a body of History. By L. M. CHAUDON and F. A. DELANDINE. 8th Edition, revised, corrected, and considerably enlarged. In 13 thick Octavo Volumes. Paris, 1804. Imported by de Boffe. Price 6l. 6s. sewed.

THE French articles in these volumes are for the most part correctly and satisfactorily executed, the Italian are tolerably complete, and so are the English: but the latter abound with numerous trivial, and with some important errors; while the German list is very defective. The authors appear to have taken their materials from the more accessible sources, and to have been content with simply making additions to our biographical stores, leaving it to future labourers to render them more select. The new communications, as they respect France, will be found not to be unimportant, and of these we shall quote one or two as specimens.

'*Peter Augustin Caron de Beaumarchais* was born at Paris on the 24th of January, 1732; and like *Rousseau*, he was the son of a clock-maker. His father, being eminent in his line, inspired his son with a taste for his art; and the latter materially improved the mechanism of watches. His discovery, however, being contested by a distinguished watch-maker who claimed it as his own, the difference was referred to the Academy of Sciences, which gave a decree in favour of the young *Beaumarchais*. Music at this time became his favourite pursuit. He could play on several instruments, but he performed on the harp and guitar in a superior style. The sisters of Louis XV. being desirous of hearing him, admitted him to their concerts, and at length into their parties. The marked credit which he enjoyed with the Princesses of France, the disproportion between his birth and his present consideration, his natural pride, which his good fortune had increased, and a levity in his carriage and manners, which in some cases bordered on indiscretion, raised up against him a host of secret enemies. A nobleman, observing him one day in a splendid dress as he was passing along the gallery of Versailles, desirous of mortifying him, approached and thus accosted him; "I meet you most *à-pro-pos*; my watch is out of order; do me the favour to look at it." *Beaumarchais*, thus reminded of his former condition,

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tion, observed to him that he had always a very clumsy hand. The great man insisting, he takes the watch, and lets it drop, saying; "I told you what would be the consequence, but you would have it so."

'The countenance of the court occasioned the connection between *Beaumarchais* and the rich *Duverney*; it was thus that he discovered his talent for business, and that he availed himself of it in order to advance his fortune. Three law suits occupied his life from this period; the one with the residuary legatee of *Duverney*, for a moderate legacy which he claimed; another with the Counsellor *Goesman*; and the third was the Koroman suit. He finished by gaining each of them. They all arose more from hatred than from any interest which the parties had in litigating them, and they attracted the attention of all France. At the commencement of the war between Great Britain and her colonies, *Beaumarchais* very much increased his wealth by supplying the latter with all sorts of warlike stores. He still farther improved his fortune by contributing to the *Caisse d'Escomte*, to the fire-engine-establishment of the brothers *Perier*, and to other useful public undertakings. All this time, he was supplying the theatre with dramatic productions; to which, in spite of their numerous faults, the talent which was conspicuous in them, and the strong interest which they excited, ensured a degree of success which no other writer enjoyed. The revolution arrived, and *Beaumarchais* was appointed a member of the first provisional government of Paris. Soon afterward, his life was threatened, and he was successively seen flying to Holland and England, by turns proscribed and absolved, accused and justified, by the agents of the revolutionary power; next returning to France in order to be lodged in the Abbaye, liberated from prison, and again taking to flight. Having finally re-established himself in his native country, he died by the bursting of a blood vessel in the year 1799. At the time, though his career had been so laborious and so stormy, his health appeared to be excellent, and his frame betrayed none of the symptoms of age. He was master of all the resources of genius and of character; his firmness arose from reflection; his patience was unwearied; and he possessed in an eminent degree the art of persuasion. His physiognomy and his elocution were equally lively, and they were animated by eyes full of fire; he had as much expression in the emphasis and the look, as of finesse in the smile; and he was distinguished above all by a species of assurance with which a confidence in his own powers inspired him. With the great, he displayed a particular manner, which was full of address without being servile; and with whom his reputation for talents stood him in great stead. He had the air of appearing to think that they could not be of a different opinion from him without being wanting in understanding, which he never intimated, more particularly to those who were most deficient; he expressed himself, when conversing with persons of this description, with as much confidence as fascination; and he profited at once by their self love and mediocrity, by rendering the one the instrument by which he secured the other. *Subathier*, speaking of his memorials against the Messieurs *Goesman*, &c. observes that nothing can be more original or better written. Reasoning

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ing is in them every where seasoned with the most refined pleasantry; the fourth memorial, above all, indicates a writer who is acquainted with all the sources of persuasion; and who by his address is capable of turning against themselves the weapons of his adversaries. Had *Beaumarchais* produced only this memorial, he would have deserved a place among the few literati who, to the merit of writing with perspicuity and correctness, unite the faculty of keeping up the attention of the reader, by a varied and pointed style. In these memorials, the author rises to the height of making his own cause that of his readers; they are of a kind and cast of which there existed no model. Their form, which is as sprightly as it is unusual, exhibits at once a legal argument, a satire, a drama, a comedy, and a gallery of pictures. He makes the reader indignant, and sets him to laugh, be angry and merry, at his pleasure. Nothing can be closer, more ingenious, and more diversified, than his reasoning. His logical oratory is that of Demosthenes.'

The criticisms here passed on his theatrical pieces admirably point out their excellencies and defects, and the causes to which they owed their success. The Marriage of Figaro, which has been naturalized in this country, was acted, we are told, one or two nights in every week during the first two years subsequent to its appearance; it produced 25,000*l.* to the theatre, and 4000*l.* to the author. In his memorials to *Lecointre* of Versailles, or *My six Epochs*, Paris, 1793, *Beaumarchais* relates with as much interest as force the various dangers which he had the good fortune to escape in the course of the revolution; while his riches, his talents, his celebrity, and his influence pointed him out as one of its victims. It is then observed of him that, born in a private station, and without ever having quitted it, he attained a very large fortune without having once enjoyed any place; that he was engaged in large commercial speculations, without ever appearing any other at Paris than a man of the world; that he enjoyed at the theatre a success which has no parallel, while his pieces rank not as the first even of the second order; that he obtained high celebrity by law proceedings, which, in the case of any other person, would have remained as obscure as they were ridiculous; and that he procured the reputation of distinguished talents by writings which are the soonest forgotten, namely, legal memorials and statements.

As *La Harpe* is not unknown to our readers, and has been so lately under our notice, we shall extract a few facts and some observations with regard to him, from the account given in this dictionary, which may be regarded as supplemental to those that we have already stated.

'*John Francis de la Harpe* was born at Paris in 1739; his father was a Swiss, and a captain of artillery in the service of France. He had no fortune in prospect, and owed his education to the kindness of

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of the principal of the college d' Harcourt. The young *La Harpe* carried away the university prizes, and soon distinguished himself by his productions. At the age of 25 he gave to the stage his tragedy of Warwick, which met with great success: but his future essays in the same way did not answer the public expectations; with the exception of Philoctetes, translated from Sophocles. The absence of the female character is a singular trait in this tragedy; without love, the performance interests by its noble simplicity, and by bringing to our recollection the high state of the tragic art in Greece. Every year, besides his tragedies, this writer produced pieces of poetry, and prose essays, which were crowned with the prizes of the different academies. This honour was conferred on his eulogiums on *Fenelon*, *Racine*, *Catinat*, and *Charles V.* He had for a long time the charge of the literary part of the *Mercure.* Having shewn himself a good poet and a good orator, he appeared with great *eclat* as a critic; he displayed a profound acquaintance with criticism, and a correct taste; of which his lectures at the Lyceum, or *Cours complet de Littérature*, furnish illustrious proofs. On this laborious work, his fame is principally founded. Authors, it is true, are there sometimes treated with too much severity, but it every where discloses views favourable to the advancement of letters. Ordinarily in his literary judgments, we meet with that purity of style to which he had reached, sound principles of taste, and a remarkable talent for discussion, as well as close and forcible reasoning; could he have commanded his passions when treating of his cotemporaries, and had he adopted a style less imperious and decisive, he might have filled with dignity the chair of Quintilian. His powers were considerable, but it was his misfortune greatly to over-rate them. When the revolution broke out, he cherished notions of reform, without carrying them into extremes: but, when the reign of terror taught him that all was capable of being abused, when he saw the ideas of liberty, equality, and justice, become rallying points for the factious; and when he had been confined in one of the prisons of the capital as a suspected person; he came out of it filled with indignation against tyranny, and inspired with zeal for that holy religion which it was attempted to overturn, by ridiculing its worship, and proscribing its ministers. He had been the disciple and great admirer of *Voltaire*, who had rewarded with eulogiums his attachment to the party of the modern philosophers; he now declared himself their enemy, and attacked their principles in all his writings, from this period to his death. On the 18th Fructidor (4th September) he was condemned to deportation: but he had the good fortune to conceal himself in a secure asylum, and to escape the proscription. He died in the winter of 1803, at the age of 64. In his will, these words occur; "I implore divine providence to answer the prayers which I have offered for the happiness of my country! May it long enjoy peace and tranquillity! May the holy maxims of the gospel be generally followed for the good of society!" *M. de Fontanes*, in a short and brilliant eulogium on him, says; "Letters and France have lost in *La Harpe* a poet, an orator, and an illustrious critic." He panegyrized the great men of the bright days of eloquence and poetry; while their spirit and their language

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guage are to be found in the writings of a disciple who had formed himself on their model. It was in their name that he attacked, to his last moment, false literary doctrines; and in this kind of combat his life was employed to secure the triumph of true principles. If this courageous devotion secured him fame, it did not insure him happiness. I cannot dissemble that the frankness of his character, and the impartial rigour of his censures, too often alienated benevolence from his name and his labours; so that he acquired only esteem where others would have obtained enthusiastic attachment. He expired at an age when the thoughts have lost nothing of their vigour, and when his talents had been strengthened and increased by the extraordinary events of the last twelve years. It is known that he had become a proselyte to those useful and consolatory opinions, on which the social system reposes; these not only enriched his ideas and his style with new beauties, but they mitigated the sufferings of his latter days. The God, whom *Fenelon* and *Racine* adored, comforted on the bed of death the eloquent panegyrist of these great and pious men. The works of *de la Harpe* have been collected in six volumes, 8vo. but this edition is very incomplete, and renders it desirable that another should be given to the public.'

We presume that the works here mentioned are confined to his poetical, dramatic, and oratorical productions; to the exclusion of his abridgements, translations, and the *Cours complet de Littérature.* The dictionary is silent on the subject of the last banishment of *La Harpe* by *Bonaparte*: another proof of the melancholy state of the press in France.

Chargeable as this work is with numerous inaccuracies, it claims a place in the library of every general scholar, and will be found highly useful and commodious. If often it cannot be implicitly trusted, it will in most cases prove a convenient guide to purer sources.

Art. VI. *Exposition des Familles Naturelles*, &c. *i. e.* An Exposition of the natural Families and of the Germination of Plants, by Jaume Saint-Hilaire; containing the description of two thousand three hundred and thirty-seven Genera, and of nearly four thousand of the most useful and interesting Species. One hundred and seventeen Plates, the figures of which are designed by the Author, exhibit the Characters of the Families, and of the different Modes of Germination of Monocotyledinous and Dicotyledinous Plants. 2 Vols. 8vo. (in four Parts.) Paris, 1805. Imported by de Boffe. Price 2l. 10s. sewed; or in 2 Vols. 4to. with coloured Plates, 6l. and on Vellum 10l.

Our botanical readers will recollect that, in 1759, *Bernard de Jussieu* arranged the plants in the royal garden at Trianon, according to what he termed the order of natural families; and that his method was extended and improved by his nephew,

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nephew, *Antoine Laurent de Jussieu*, who unfolded the principles of this arrangement in a work intitled, *Genera Plantarum secundum Ordines Naturales disposita*, published in 1789. Assuming his primary divisions from the greater or less degree of permanency which is observed to prevail in the principal organs of plants, he found that the embryo, or germ, is that part which is most uniform and invariable. This essential part of the fructification, it is well known, exists either by itself, or accompanied by one or two seminal lobes, or cotyledons. Hence arises a threefold division of plants into *acotyledinous*, *monocotyledinous*, and *dicotyledinous*. Next to the germ, in respect of consequence and permanency, are the stamens and pistil. According as the former are inserted on the latter, or situated below it, or placed on the surrounding calyx, the plant is termed *epigynous*, *hypogynous*, and *perigynous*. As the acotyledinous division includes few orders, and presents a very obscure organization, it constitutes a class by itself; while the monocotyledinous and dicotyledinous, according to the three modes in which the stamens happen to be inserted, furnish six others. Thus far *Bernard de Jussieu* had advanced in his distribution.

It was soon found, however, that the very numerous tribes with double cotyledons stood in need of farther subdivisions. These were, consequently, taken from the *mediate* or *immediate* insertion of the stamens, the first denoting the intervention of the corolla; and the second, if *absolute* and *necessary*, the want of a corolla, or, if *simple*, a polypetalous corolla, to which the stamens rarely adhere. These distinctions, combined with the preceding, afford nine principal classes of the dicotyledinous division. A tenth is deduced from the distinct or united state of the anthers in the numerous series of the compound flowers; and an eleventh from the peculiar structure of those plants which *M. de Jussieu* denominated *diclinical*, from the circumstance of the sexes being essentially separated by the structure of the organs. These eleven classes, combined with the acotyledinous, and three of the monocotyledinous, give fifteen in all.—Under each of these classes, the author included a greater or smaller number of families, distinguished by a general character necessarily common to all the plants belonging to a class. Each family was, in turn, distinguished by all the characters of the genera which composed it. The families amounted to one hundred, and the genera to one thousand seven hundred and fifty-four.

The principal object of the work before us is to explain and illustrate these natural families, without any pointed reference to their respective classes. We shall exemplify the

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author's plan and manner, by transcribing one of his shortest articles:

'THE HYPERICEOUS FAMILY.

'HYPERICÆ. Tab. 75. (Cisti. *Adans.* Hyperica, *Juss.*)

'Plants with two cotyledons, corolla polypetalous, with hypogynous stamens, i. e. inserted on the base of the ovary.

'Calyx with four, five, or six divisions. Four or five petals. Stamens numerous and polyadelphous, or united in several parcels at their base; anthers rounded. Ovary simple; several styles and as many stigmata. Fruit often capsular, sometimes bacciform; cells equal in number to that of the styles, with several valves formed by the turning back of their borders. Seeds inserted on a central placenta, which is sometimes simple, but more frequently divided according to the number of cells. No perisperm. Germ upright—radicle inferior.

'The hypericeous plants have an herbaceous stem, shrubby, or somewhat shrubby. Their leaves are opposite, often dotted, i. e. interspersed with small vesicles, which contain an essential oil.

'ASCYRUM. *Tourn. Linn. Juss.* Lam. illustr. t. 644. Calyx of four parts, of which the two interior are the largest, persisting. Four petals. Stamens numerous, united at the base into four bundles. Style scarcely apparent. Two stigmata. Capsule with one cell, and two valves.—Shrubs with sessile leaves.

'ASCYRUM STANS. *Mich.* Am. 2. p. 77. Stem upright, simple, and cornered at the base; leaves oblong oval; flowers supported on short peduncles.

'Inhabits North America.

'BRATHYS. *Mut. Juss.* Calyx five-parted. Five petals. Stamens numerous. Five styles, five stigmata. Capsule five-celled. Stem herbaceous, or shrubby.

'B. JUNIPERINA. *Linn.* Suppl. JUNIPER LEAVED B. Leaves crowded, linear, pointed.

'Inhabits New Grenada.

'HYPERICUM. *Tourn. Linn. Juss.* ST. JOHN'S-WORT. Calyx five parted. Corolla of five petals. Stamens united at the base in several bodies. Three styles. Capsule three-valved. Partitions formed by the returning borders of the valves; placenta central. Stem herbaceous, or shrubby; leaves often pierced with small holes.

'H. QUADRANGULARE. *Linn.* Fl. Dan. t. 640. SQUARE-STALKED ST. JOHN'S-WORT. Stem herbaceous, four-cornered; leaves sessile, oval, perforated.

'Inhabits Europe.

'H. PERFORATUM. *Linn. Blackw.* t. 15. COMMON ST. JOHN'S-WORT. Stem cylindrical, with two membranaceous winglets; leaves blunt, marked with pores. Stigmata marked with a black-point.

'Inhabits Europe.

'ELODEA. *Adans.* Stamens parted into three or five bundles at the base. Three styles. Disk of the ovary, and claws of the petals, glandulous. Capsule three-celled. Stem herbaceous, or shrubby.

'E. PALUSTRIS.

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'E. PALUSTRIS. MARSH E. Stem cylindrical, creeping; leaves orbicular, marked with five nerves, embracing the stalk; flowers with pedicles.

'Inhabits Europe. I found it at St. Léger.

'E. NUMMULARIA. *Pluk.* alm. 188. t. 93. f. 4. MONEY-WORT-LEAVED E. Leaves smooth, cordate orbicular, like those of money-wort.

'Inhabits the Pyrénées.

'ANDROSAEMUM. *Tourn.* TUTSAN. Stamens united at the base in five bundles. Three styles. Berry one-celled. Three placentas, attached each to the sides of the berry, by means of a thin membrane, at first entire, afterward bifid, and then leaving an empty space between its two divisions.

'A. VULGARE. *Blackw.* t. 94. COMMON TUTSAN. Stem suffruticose; leaves sessile, oval, blunt, very entire.

'Inhabits France.

'EUCRYPHIA. *Cavan.* Calyx persisting, with five leaflets. Corolla of five petals. Stamens very numerous, anthers oval. Styles numerous. Stigmata simple. Fruit capsulary, oval. Capsules numerous; receptacles linear, united in the centre of the fruit. Seeds small, oval.

'E. CORDIFOLIA. *Cavan.* icon. t. 372. HEART-LEAVED E. A lofty tree. Leaves opposite, oval, cordate; flowers axillary, solitary.

'Inhabits Chili.

'OBSERVATIONS. The fruit of the hypericeous plants is a capsule, which contains very small seeds; a circumstance which distinguishes them from the guttiferous, whose fruit is drupaceous, or a berry. To this family, however, they approximate by several other characters, especially by the resinous juice which distils from certain species of hypericum, natives of Guyana. Their indefinite number of stamens, and their polyspermous fruit, distinguish them from the malpighian family.

'TUTSAN (*Hypericum Androsemum*, Linn.) is an under shrub of France, which passes for vulnerary, resolvent, and vermifuge. Common St. John's-wort (*Hypericum perforatum*, Linn.) is often used in medicine. It is vulnerary, resolvent, vermifuge, useful in cases of blood-spitting, with suppuration, and in certain dysenteries. Oil of St. John's-wort is very frequently applied to wounds, ulcers, burns, and especially to contusions.'

To those persons who are desirous of becoming acquainted with the method laid down by the *Jussieus*, and improved by *Ventenat*, in his *Tableau du Regne Végétal*, we cannot do better than recommend the perusal of this performance. The divisions and descriptions are clear and accurate; and the plates prefixed to each family exhibit the essential characters with neatness and precision. The learned author also sometimes enriches his miscellaneous remarks with amusing or useful information. Thus he observes of the Fungi, that the gases which they give out into

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the air are the hydrogen, azotic, and carbonic acid, whereas other plants disengage oxygen gas.—The cementing property of *Polytrichum commune* is aptly exemplified in the quay constructed at Petersburgh by order of Catharine II.; for the building has since acquired such firmness and tenacity, that a stone can hardly be detached from it by the violent shocks of a battering ram.—*Mimusops elengi*, Linn. is represented as one of the most interesting trees in India. Its flowers, which are particularly fragrant, appear twice in the year. During the day, they are but half expanded; at sun-set, and in the night, they are full blown; and, in the morning, the earth is strewed with their corolla. These flowers are woven into necklaces and garlands, which are worn by the women. When they are faded into a yellow brown, and are no longer fit for ornaments, they are scattered on beds and clothes, which they perfume with their grateful odour. Their fruit is a sweet and delicate morsel.

This treatise, however, is chiefly valuable on account of the assiduity with which the author has watched the germination of different plants. Without the plates, we cannot very intelligibly convey to our readers the results of his observations: but, as he seems to be in progress to important discoveries, we hope that he will be induced to a zealous prosecution of his inquiries.

By throwing into a supplement, and reducing to the Linnean classification, those genera which are refractory to his favourite arrangement, M. St. Hilaire avows the imperfection of the latter. On various occasions, too, he points to inaccuracies in *de Jussieu*'s developement of his families, and suggests the propriety of amendment. Yet, after all the improvement of which this ingenious and laboured attempt to establish a natural method is susceptible, we fear that it will never be adequate to the exigencies of botanical nomenclature.

These volumes are furnished with a succinct explanation of technical terms, and a copious index. The typography is rather handsome than correct. Physiological and economical details are too sparingly scattered through the work. The habitations of particular species are too often vaguely, and sometimes inaccurately stated. *Oxalis cornuculata*, for example, which is quoted as a plant of Southern France, is by no means uncommon in the neighbourhood of Exeter, and has even been found wild on the other side of the Tweed. *Lavatera arborea*, in like manner, which the author assigns to Italy, is a native not only of our southern shores, but of the rocky island of Bass, in the mouth of the Frith of Forth, where it braves the cold blasts of the German ocean.

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ART. VII. *Les Récettes Extérieures*; *i. e.* Foreign Contributions. By Sir FRANCIS D'IVERNOIS. 8vo. pp. 269. De Boffe, London. January, 1805.

OUR old acquaintance, in the introductory part of this volume, grievously complains of the unfair treatment which his predictions have experienced. If he has proved a false prophet, he contends that it has not been his fault, but that of the late coalition against France; for had the members of that confederacy duly weighed the common danger, made proportionate exertions, and drawn harmoniously together, his prophesies would have been verified to the exact letter; and he alleges that the provisoes and conditions, by which he qualified them, are overlooked by those who assail him with slander and ridicule.

The *Deficit* on which Sir Francis has so long dwelt is again the burden of the tale. The *deficit* occasioned the revolution, and the *deficit*, he has repeatedly told us, will extinguish it. How it happens that these opposite effects are to proceed from one and the same cause, we cannot very well collect from the obscure lucubrations before us; to which, therefore, we must refer those who desire satisfaction on this point, wishing them better success.

If we have generally set little value on the oracular dicta of this financial knight, we have expressed ourselves indebted to him for the facts which he has occasionally disclosed. It is evident that he reads the French journals with great attention; and he probably commands other channels of information with regard to the interior of France, which are not accessible to men in general in this country. The more curious particulars in the mass here communicated, we shall lay before our readers; who, we hope, will excuse us if we are not able always to state them in connection with the notions and speculations which they are introduced to support.

The author roundly asserts that the public expenditure of France exceeds its revenue by a sum not less than between 150 and 200 millions; and he does not withhold the grounds on which his assertion rests: for he denies that there are any resources, those of foreign plunder excepted, within the reach of *Bonaparte*, from which it can be supplied. He states that the French chief takes no steps to remedy this alarming evil, but on the contrary that he goes on aggravating the mischief by additional expences; while the revenue, so far from increasing, is in a progressive state of diminution. Hence he infers that *Bonaparte* is bent on war as an indispensible source of supply; and he leaves it to his readers to draw the conclusion, that Eu-

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rope ought to unite against him as the determined and perpetual enemy of its peace and independence.

As to the principal revolutionary ways and means, he says that they have hitherto been *vols au dedans, pillages au dehors.* The first of these respectable sources of revenue, we are told, lasted for about four years; and this was the reign of the assignats. During this period, a *third of the territory of France* was confiscated, and exposed to sale for the use of the state. In the course of the years 3 and 4, this paper fell to the lowest degree of discredit; and the defenders of the country could not obtain their pay, and have not yet received it, if we believe the present author. The armies, while the assignats were current, amounted to the scarcely credible number of nearly twelve hundred thousand men: but when this currency would no longer pass, they dwindled to less than half the number. At this crisis, the lucky genius of the republic detached the king of Prussia from the coalition, and then was first displayed the grand stroke in finance *d' alimenter la guerre par la guerre:* the treasures of France and Holland cemented the fraternity to which these ill-fated provinces were admitted. When, at a subsequent period, the united forces of Russia and Austria had nearly confined the French armies within their own limits, the absence of the necessary resources was felt, and the Directory became a sacrifice to that cause. The propitious stars of *Bonaparte* led to the victory of Marengo, and the ways and means were furnished by the fertile plains of Italy. Thus has the *deficit* of late years ever been made up from the pillage committed *au dehors.*

The author states in detail the late peace-establishment of *Bonaparte.* The *deficit*, he remarks, has been hitherto supplied by open and secret foreign pillage; and under the heads of *Récettes Extérieures* and *Moyens Extraordinaires*, this strange resource figured as a fixed head of supply in the peace-budget of the Consul: but, as the sums wrested from foes and allies have proved insufficient to fill up the vast chasm, the French Chief has been obliged to have recourse to other expedients; these have been bankruptcies, anticipations, and the abandonment of important and beneficial undertakings.

At the close of the year 8, there was a *deficit* of 20 millions, with a prior floating debt of 70 millions. This it was proposed to fund, but the operation was conducted in a manner truly French. The creditor was not to receive as much stock as the sum due to him would purchase, but he was compelled to take it at par. The creditor of the year 8 was to receive 5 per cent. interest, and 100 livres stock fetched in the market 55 livres, which occasioned a loss of 45 per cent. The older creditors were allowed only 3 per cent. interest, and their stock

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was at 33, which occasioned to them a loss of 67 per cent. We feel as much puzzled as the author, to guess the ground on which this preference was given to the more recent creditor.

Bonaparte obliged the hospitals to receive sick and infirm soldiers, and incurred a debt to these foundations of 29 millions; and he paid them with paper which, at the very moment when it was issued, fell to a fifth of its nominal value. By these several methods, he discharged state engagements to the amount of 282¼ millions, with a sum rather short of 100 millions.

Rochambeau, in order to subsist his army and fleet at St. Domingo, drew bills on Paris; on the credit of which he received supplies from the Americans, Spaniards, and English: but the greater part of these securities were dishonored, by the orders of the Chief Consul. The author mentions another measure of a similar kind, which makes up the number of four bankruptcies committed by *Bonaparte*.

The anticipations are classed by Sir Francis under four heads: 1. The sale of the national property; 2. The redemption of the land tax; 3. The sale of the forests of the communes, which were seized to the use of government by an arbitrary decree of *Bonaparte*; and of those belonging to the reinstated emigrants, which, by a like mandate, were ordered not to be restored to them with their other property; 4. The sums advanced by persons holding places under the government as securities, and for which 6 per cent. interest is paid. These advances, under the old government, had swelled to the enormous sum of 200 millions, and were the cause which prevented numerous useless places from being abolished.

Sir Francis very properly ridicules the operation of a sinking fund of 10 millions, when put in opposition to annual *deficits* of nearly ten times that amount.

Bonaparte has fixed his peace-establishment at 646 millions, but in this calculation the salaries of the clergy are not included; and the disbursement will, as the author thinks, much exceed this sum, because the French Chief is constantly creating some new object of expenditure. The Consul's modest salary of 500,000 livres has been converted into an imperial civil list of 26 millions, without any provision being made for so serious an addition to the public burthens. He quotes the Tribune *Berenger*, since raised to be a counsellor of state, as asserting that the resources of the republic are dilapidated to an extreme degree; the consumer ruined, the manufacturer abandoning his enterprizes, and the labourer without employ; and the author hence concludes that France has not the means of filling

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up the *deficit* which annually grows more considerable. *Bonaparte*, he says, must either place the army and navy on their former footing, or he must reckon on constant war: but it is clear, he adds, that he has adopted the latter alternative. Loans he cannot make, nor is it in his power to impose any new productive taxes.—If the accounts of this writer deserve to be trusted, there never was a less skilful financier than the *man of wonders*, as he is here called. It is stated that he has tried three new taxes; the first, which attaches to the transport of goods in the interior, has had the effect of nearly annihilating all inland traffic; the second, on snuff, has materially injured the home manufacture, and occasioned smuggling to an unusual extent; the third is a tax of so much per bottle on all wines, be their quality what it may; and the bottle which may be bought for a *sous* is taxed as much as that which costs an *écu*. The produce of these three taxes is not laid at more than 17 or 18 millions! Marvellous to relate, the tribunes and legislators, who went out during the last year, have been appointed collectors and superintendants of these new branches of the public revenue! Can all this be true?

Curious information is here given respecting the contributions of foreign states, during the interval of peace: which are set down in the peace budgets under the titles of *Récettes Extérieures*, and *Moyens Extraordinaires*. The Parisians give them the name of *Exploitations de la Peur*. On this display of unparallelled audacity and profligacy, no comments can be too severe; and no one will blame the warm language of the loyal knight.

Bonaparte and his subjects are divided, we are told, on the question whether more taxes are paid at present, or under the old government. The former maintains that they are diminished, but *his* people contend that they have increased. Our author, with all the complaisance of a *Preux Chevalier*, asserts that both parties are in the right; he admits, with his new Imperial Majesty, that less revenue is collected at this time than in 1789; and he concedes to the late *sovereign* people, that they pay more in proportion to their means to the Emperor, than they did to the last of their kings. The annual contributions, now levied on what was old France, he calculates at 531 millions; whereas, according to M. *Necker*, it paid, in the latter years of the monarchy, at the rate of 685 millions per annum: so that the French contribute about a fourth less than they did in 1789: but then, says the author, their means are reduced in a far greater proportion. He estimates the income of every sort before the revolution at three milliards, while he supposes it at present not to amount to more than the half of that sum. Besides the diminution

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diminution of revenue, occasioned by the reduction of the taxable fund, he justly observes that the partition of what remains among a greater number of holders, a change effected by revolutionary events and regulations, renders it far less productive of taxes. In France, the land tax, and the taxes on windows and doors, amount to 300 millions, or a tenth of the rental of the country. The land tax, it is here said, has also been most unequally imposed; in some departments, it amounts to half of the annual value of the land, and in others to a third, while in some it does not exceed a tenth. The taxes on consumption under the old government amounted to 244 millions, but they do not now equal a fourth of that sum. This disproportionate territorial taxation, we are informed, was introduced by the constituent assembly, in which the opinion of the economists prevailed. The collection of the revenue under the monarchy cost 58 millions, but it now falls very little short of 100 millions. It is admitted by Sir F. D'I. that the taxes on the people of the country, under the royal *regime*, were most injudicious and oppressive, but he insists that they were less so than the existing taxes.

The departments which consist of the conquered territories furnish much heavier contributions than those do which formed old France. Savoy pays the treble of what its late sovereign, the king of Sardinia, drew from it; and the rest of the acquired countries pay twice as much as was exacted from them by their former governments. The author calculates that the subjects of France furnish in contributions at the rate of 22 livres 10 sous per head; which is double the amount supplied by the several other states of the continent, Holland excepted.

Sir Francis states various reasons to prove that the revenues of France must diminish, instead of increasing; and we are told that they fell short, last year, of what they were the year before, by 50 millions. Having displayed very much in detail the desperate state of the French resources at home, he examines, in the concluding part of his work, the extent and items of their expenditure; in order to shew that war alone can keep the machine of the French government in motion.

The public expenditure exceeds, by a third, its amount in the time of *Necker*; it being then 600 millions, and now 823, without including the stipends pledged to the clergy under the *Concordat*. Among the causes of this increase of the expenditure, the author reckons the newly acquired territories. Savoy, oppressed as we have seen it is by taxation, does not supply revenue sufficient to defray the expence of governing it; and this is the case with all the provinces which republican ardour added to the antient limits of France. Swisserland, we

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are assured, were it not for this consideration, would have been added to the other possessions of the *first magistrate of the Gauls.*

With regard to the army, which under the old government did not amount to more than 160,000 men, it was decreed at the peace of Amiens to consist of 300,000; and during each of the two years of peace, 120,000 men were raised under the conscription; whereas the annual quota furnished by the kingdom for the militia, under the monarchy, amounted to no more than 10,000. It is calculated that each French soldier costs the government 750 livres; and this alarming land-force consumes the sum of 225 millions, which exceeds the amount of the collected sums severally appropriated to the maintenance of the armies of Austria, Russia, and Prussia. Under the administration of *Necker*, 45 millions only in time of peace were appropriated to the navy: but *Bonaparte*, in the same circumstances, assigned 120 millions for the same service. The army and navy-estimates, during the short period of the last peace, amounted to 369 millions; which is more than double the sum expended on the same objects under the monarchy.

Another cause of an increased expenditure the author finds in that equality of condition, which has been introduced among the subjects of France by the events of the revolution, and by laws and regulations adopted in the course of it. Those persons, who are in the service of government, being destitute of private fortune, cannot support the figure required by their situations without large salaries. In the whole civil hierarchy, the only honorary offices are those of the mayors of towns; and we are informed that great difficulty is experienced in filling these places. The intendants of the monarchy, and their deputies, did not cost the state a million and a half; while the prefects and sub-prefects, who have replaced them, draw from the public four times that sum. The 13 sovereign courts, the old parliaments of France, filled with men of ability who were animated with high notions of honor and integrity,—whose decisions were, latterly at least, so impartial and pure,—and which took not a sous from the public treasury,—have been succeeded by a tribunal of cassation, by 30 courts of appeal, which are filled by between 5 and 600 judges, by 2000 civil and criminal judges, and 3600 justices of the peace; which altogether cost the government between 26 and 27 millions. The counsellors of state of the New *Regime* are five times the number of those of the Old, and receive each a salary three times as great. The Ministers of State are increased from 5 to 8.

Sir Francis assigns another cause for the additional expenditure in question, in the usurped government to which the country

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country is subject. It cost France, he says, a great sum to subvert the throne of the antient line of its monarchs, but it will cost it more to consecrate and establish that of the foreigners who have recently grasped the sceptre. He very properly observes that this increased expence, incurred by the maintenance of an usurped authority, is a consequence of the revolution highly worthy of consideration, and pregnant with important lessons. The new Imperial family does not cost the public so little as 30 millions. The civil list of 25 millions, and the 12 palaces conferred on Louis XVI. by the constituent assembly, have been decreed to Napoleon; and the recognized princes of his blood receive more than a million and a half annually. The younger children of the king of England, the author remarks, have pensions only of 12,000*l.* a year, an income which is far short of those of numerous private individuals; while the brothers of the new French Emperor are each in the receipt of more than 100,000*l.* sterling per annum. The royal family of England takes only a hundredth part of the public revenue, while the new Majesty of France absorbs a twenty-second part of the taxes collected in that country. One hundred thousand persons (four times the number employed in England to collect a revenue twice as ample,) are engaged in levying the taxes paid by the French: 170,000 receive pensions from the government; and 223,186 are stock-holders. If, says Sir F. the gratuities of government are thus widely extended, and its influence so generally operative, it has also prizes which are held forth to hope, and which animate ambition. The 130 senatorships, and the places of legislators and tribunes, consume 5 millions; those of the 8 ministers of state, of the 50 counsellors of state, and of the 108 prefects, require another 5 millions. The 11 archbishops, the 58 bishops, the superior judges, the 4 or 500 sub-prefects, the 6 or 7000 places in the legion of honour, the 8 or 9000 brevets for the Lyceums, Prytaneums, Polytechnic school, Military Academy, &c. form a very heavy charge on government.—We must not overlook the personal liberalities of the Emperor to artists and men of letters; among whom he distributed in the year 11, more than half a million of livres; and in the same year 5962 livres were bestowed, by the same hand, for the encouragement of agriculture! The author observes that, to the expences of a splendid monarchy and a magnificent court, France now adds those of an organized republic. It maintains a senate, an assembly of legislators, and another of tribunes. Every thing in finance, and in every administrative branch, is considered by *Bonaparte* solely as it extends his influence, and secures him dependents and partizans; and not a decade has passed since the

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the 18th Brumaire, without the French chief having created some new place. He keeps all the population of France dependent on him, by actual gratuities, by promises, by hope, or by fear. If we except the senatorships, the rank of marshals, and the grand dignities of the empire, all the places to which we have alluded are held during pleasure. Of the pensioners and stock-holders, he has the complete command. 54,000 petitioners consult his nod, from the hope of being admitted into the legion of honour; while archbishops and bishops, and the 3 protestant ministers of Paris, have accepted of the distinction. In his 30 Lyceums, the only schools now in France in which science and letters can be studied, he maintains gratis 6400 pupils for 6 years. The brevets for admission come from the Emperor himself; and 100,000 families are thus kept dependent on him. We have noticed the 100,000 employed in collecting the revenue; there are also 10,000 inspectors and surveyors of forests, besides large bodies of civil engineers, contractors, &c. He disposes of the honours and prizes in the Institute, and thus chains the muses to his car; the advocate, in order to plead in the courts of law, must obtain a brevet immediately from him; and he appoints to the chairs of the professors of theology.

The author thus enumerates the descriptions of persons who voted for the elevation of *Bonaparte* to the Imperial Dignity; 3,521,677 being the whole number which voted for him.

Holders of national property, . .	2,000,000
Collectors of revenue and artizans employed by government, ...	150,000
Land and naval forces, ...	450,000
Those connected with the offices of the Ministers of State, ...	150,000
New military pensioners, ...	64,000
Stock-holders, ...	223,000
	3,037,000

The additional 400,000 he regards as consisting of republicans influenced by the hopes of places, or royalists who lived in dread of the police.

When the two Consuls waited on *Bonaparte*, to place at his feet the consular fasces, the wits of Paris designated the future Emperor as the *Tiers consolidé du despotisme.*

This vast increase of expenditure, which has now been detailed, at the close of a revolution occasioned by an excessive expenditure, is (observes the author) a singular phænomenon; whether it will induce the French to turn their eyes towards the exiled

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exiled family, he is at length cautious of predicting: but he remarks that, in the case of that family being restored, there might be saved to France half its present military force, and consequently half the expence incurred by it.

On the whole, this tract contains a variety of facts and observations, which strongly claim the attention of statesmen; and it abounds less in predictions than the former works of the same author. The policy and administrative measures of *Bonaparte* are ably examined, and the volume is by no means barren of interesting matter. Yet the reader's march through it is heavy and fatiguing; and he must submit to a second, or even a third perusal, before he becomes master of the statements, and the scope of the writer. If Sir Francis merits praise for the industry with which he collects facts, and for the attention with which he considers them, he does not seem to be aware how much even the most valuable information may be neglected, when awkwardly, confusedly, and desultorily offered to the public.

ART. VIII *Appendice aux Récettes Extérieures*, &c.; *i.e.* An Appendix to the Foreign Contributions; or an Analysis of the public Accounts of the Year XII. and of the Budget of the Year XIII. published at Paris in February 1805. By Sir FRANCIS D'IVERNOIS. 8vo. 2s. 6d. sewed. De Boffe, London. May, 1805.

THIS indefatigable writer here admits that the revenue of the year xii. has exceeded the estimate of it by 60 millions: a surplus which arose from the superior productiveness of five distinct sources of supply, namely, what are called accidental receipts, lotteries, customs, dues on registration, and the forests. Nevertheless, Sir Francis will not allow that this circumstance furnishes any proof of French prosperity: but we must refer those who may be curious to learn the reasons, by which he resists this inference, to his speculations on the subject. His cry is as loud as ever against the dilapidations of the national forests; and his Imperial Majesty, he says, goes on cutting down, without taking any steps to repair the loss.

Thirteen millions are stated to have been expended in pensions to the clergy during the last year; and the Emperor reserved eight millions, which he distributed according to his own pleasure: the greater part being employed to reward those prelates, whose pastoral letters best pleased him.—Ten millions extraordinary were paid to the clergy during the year of the coronation; and more than a million was expended in support of the opera houses and theatres.

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Two years ago, *Bonaparte* reduced the territorial tax 13 millions; last year, he promised to proceed with farther reductions, and assured his subjects that he should require of them no additional sacrifices: but within six weeks of this solemn engagement, he increased the territorial tax 15½ *centimes*. The inequality of this tax has been before noticed. It is proposed to remedy this evil; and a thousand itinerary engineers are now scattered over the surface of France, nominated and paid by the government, which reckons on possessing at the end of eight years a grand *terrier* of the empire, which is to contain the number of acres in cultivation, in pasture, in meadow-land, and in vineyards. It is also to include the minutest divisions, down to the smallest gardens.

Sir F. D'Ivernois disputes many of the qualities which French flattery ascribes to *Bonaparte*: but he professes himself ready to admit that his subjects may boast of the depredations which he has, during the last eighteen months, committed in foreign countries for their benefit: that they may extol the inflexibility of his character, and his discernment in the choice of persons to be his agents and instruments; that they may thank him for delivering them from anarchy, and imposing on them the curb of military government; and that they may praise him as the greatest *lieutenant de police* that France ever saw.

At last, Sir F. is driven to make the humiliating concession, that we can no longer flatter ourselves with the expectation, that the French revolution will crumble with the frail edifice of its finances. *Bonaparte*, since he has been ruler, has doubled his revenue. With such indifference in regard to means, with powers so unlimited, and embarassed so little by humane feelings, he will in his despair avail himself of forced loans, bankruptcies, arrears, requisitions in kind, and paper money. He will, if necessity requires, sell the few colonies of France to America; he will cut down all the forests; he will dispose of the pictures and curiosities which decorate his public buildings; he will exhaust every resource, and bury himself under the ruins of Italy and France, rather than be deprived of either crown.

It is controverted, whether the revenue of France be 570 or 470 millions; and Sir F. contends that 828 millions are necessary, in order to enable her to carry on the war with the same activity as in 1804. The expenditure, he assures us, is increased 41 millions, while the foreign contributions have diminished 102 millions. All the taxes, except those which are direct, and the customs, are becoming every day less and less productive. *Bonaparte*, during the current year, has dimi-

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nished his marine expenditure by 55 millions, and his military by nearly half that sum.

The author having observed that he is described in France as a hireling employed by the British ministers to magnify their resources, and to depreciate those of the enemy, thus continues:

'Hireling or not, I pledge myself each year to analyze the public accounts which shall in future issue from the French government. I impose on myself this task, not merely during the war, but until the period shall arrive when that power, in whatever hands the sovereignty may be, shall confine its expences within the limits of its internal resources. Until that time, though new treaties may be signed at Amiens and Luneville, there will be no *treaty of peace.*'

Thus solemnly does the knight lay aside his august functions, as the prophet of the downfall of the revolutionary government. If his predictions have proved vain, he has told us that the fault is not ascribable to him, but to the coalesced kings; on whose disunion, parsimony, and timidity, France built her triumphs. He now assumes the more humble guise of a critic on the Imperial budgets. In his new office, though we love the French Emperor as little as he does, we beg to remind him that a little more of impartiality will do no injury to the cause which he means to serve; and if he can introduce more of clearness and method into his statements, his lucubrations will be more read, and certainly our labour be considerably reduced.

ART. IX. *Recueil de Lettres*, &c; *i. e.* A Collection of Letters and Dissertations on Agriculture; in which are considered the advantages that would arise from folding Sheep, if more generally practised; or the means of rendering the Produce of Grain and Fruit of all kinds more abundant; the Remedies for the most dangerous Maladies; and many other Particulars interesting to the Public. To the whole are added, various Scraps of Poetry. By D. L. J. R. DE SCEVOLE, Land-owner and Farmer at Argenton, in the Department of Indre. 2 vols 12mo. Paris, 1805. Imported by De Boffe. Price 8s. sewed.

AT the age of eighty-two, M. DE SCEVOLE commences author: but he assures us that he has not been instigated by vanity, and has been prompted by no other motive than the desire of being useful to society. To a mere collector, much literary glory does not attach; and the kind of authorship which is here displayed, to swell the size of the work, will not procure for M. DE S. many compliments on the score either of literature or science. Agriculture is indeed at a low ebb in France;

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France; and the cultivators of the soil must be extremely ignorant if such a book as that which is before us be necessary or acceptable: but we charitably conclude that the French farmers will smile at this old gentleman's officiousness, and laugh heartily at many of his hints and receipts. Be this, however, as it may, the English reader will be diverted by many things in this hotch-potch. We have not only discourses on sheep, on manure, on the mode of preserving grain, on the construction of ploughs, on steeps, on paring and burning, &c. &c. but we are presented with remarks on the imprudence of scattering nuts in the fields, into which arsenic is inserted, for the purpose of destroying mice;—on the danger of burying in churches;—on the usage of tying up sheaves with withes instead of bands;—on the particles of mill stones which are mixed up with the flour that we eat in our bread, and which pass with the urine into the bladder, there generating concretions, and on the propriety of grinding corn by other means than between stones, viz. between thick planks of wood furrowed like the mill-stones, and covered with plates of iron;—and on the belief of ghosts and witches, which not only exists in the country, but which prevails to such a degree that thunder and hail are supposed to proceed from their operations; and the author tells us that he witnessed a parish-priest coming out of his church in his pontificalibus, preceded by the cross, to exorcise the sorcerers who were imagined to be in the clouds. He gives us also an enumeration of the supposed virtues of particular saints in protecting from or healing certain maladies;—remedies against the poison of vipers, for curing those who are attacked with obstinate fevers, and for the prevention of canine madness in those who have been bitten by mad animals;—remarks on the custom among the washer-women of some countries of giving a blue gloss to the linen, and on the practice of throwing the charred coals as well as the cinders into the tubs in which lye is made;—on the cause of the salubrity of the air of Paris;—on the omission to erect statues in public places to warriors and learned men, after the manner of the Greeks and Romans;—on the great quantity of caterpillars which were observed to fall from the roofs of the houses in Poitiers into the streets;—on an assertion in the works of Frederic the Great, "that the soul of man at death is like an extinguished fire, leaving nothing but cinders;"—on the possibility of directing balloons;—on strolling players, &c.

Many of these subjects we did not expect to find introduced into an agricultural work: but we conclude that M. De Scevole did not relish, especially at his narrative age, confinement to a solitary theme. He commences, like a true antiquary,

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tiquary, with copying a discourse which transports our thoughts to the origin of things. The subject, indeed, is sheep, and the best mode of treating them: but it is introduced by reflections on the Creation; and we are desired 'to put ourselves in the place of the first man, to endeavour to conceive what must have been his thoughts and feelings when he first opened his eyes to the light. Astonished at his own existence, and struck by the imposing spectacle of the earth and the sun, he throws his eyes rapidly on all the objects which surround him: but he fixes them for a long time, and with much pleasure, on that charming creature, on that other half of himself, which he perceives at his side.' What has this to do with sheep? Know, gentle reader, that Adam and Eve fall desperately in love with each other; that, after they have recovered from their amorous enthusiasm, they find time to observe the animals around them; that they are particularly attracted by the primogenitors of the woolly race; that a great intimacy succeeds; that rams and ewes fall in love, like Adam and Eve, and that hence a flock is soon produced for young master Abel. Having thus given the history of the first shepherd, we are informed of the great utility of sheep; and their advantage to the farmer, under proper management, is specified: particularly the use of folding them on fallows, by which the cartage of manure is saved, and the dung of the farm-yard is reserved for the home fields and artificial meadows:—but all this is an old story to the English agriculturist.

If we may believe the author, that he has kept apples and pears in a very fresh state for the space of twenty months, his method of proceeding ought not to be slighted: when, however, he enters on the detail, his secret is found to consist only in laying them separately at two inches distance from each other, on tables covered with dry moss, on the ground floor, where there is a free circulation of air. In order to preserve corn in granaries, it is recommended to mix it with cut straw and chaff, because it will thus be put in a state resembling that in which it existed in the ear. It is not advised to employ arsenic for the purpose of destroying rats, but to decoy them into deep glazed vessels with water at the bottom, from which they cannot escape; and an anecdote is related in a note, to prove the sagacity of rats, in acting in concert for their mutual preservation.

An inquiry is made into the kind of manure which should be employed to fertilize the soil, and give the most abundant harvests: but we learn nothing from this paper, except it be the ignorance of the French on the subject of manures.

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Of the value of the medical advice which is offered in these volumes, a tolerable estimate may be formed by turning to the paper on canine madness; in which, to prevent this most horrible malady, it is advised to wash the wound profusely with warm wine and treacle, after which an omlette is to be made of three eggs, a shell-full of nut oil, and the same quantity of the powdered root of the eglantine or dog-rose tree. When this compound is properly dressed, a part is to be applied warm by way of poultice to the wound, and the person who has been bitten is ordered to eat the remainder. This old woman's receipt is declared to be a most excellent remedy.

As an economist, this writer not only disapproves the practice of wearing hair-powder, praises Louis XIVth's black wig, and admires black locks floating on a white neck, but draws a most alarming picture of the effects of powder on the health. By its stopping the pores of the skin, this sage doctor supposes that it occasions megrims, abscesses, deafness, and blindness. In short he tells us, that a mass of powder on our heads, by obstructing the perspiration, causes as much smoke in the brain as there would be in an apartment if the fire was lighted, and the top of the chimney stopped.

A cheap loaf is recommended in scarce times, made of half flour and half potatoes, which is not a bad receipt: but M. DE SCEVOLE should not have asserted that a bushel of potatoes will go as far as a bushel of wheat.

The morsels of poetry are paraphrastic versifications of *la Bruyere*; in one of which, the present Emperor of the French is highly complimented under the character of the good shepherd.

ART. X. *Essai sur le Principe de la Souveraineté*, &c.; *i. e.* An Essay on the Principle of Sovereignty. By a Grand Vicar. 8vo. pp. 196. Dulau and Co. London. 1804.

THOUGH this work professes to be a discussion of a general principle, it is no more in fact than an impeachment of the grounds on which the French clergy have justified their conformity to the revolutionary church of France, and their submission to the existing civil authorities of that country. The author treats his subject rather as a theologian than as a politician: but, though zealous for the tenets of his community, he displays a liberal and enlightened mind; and though he is an eloquent rather than an argumentative disputant, and is never deep, he combats with force and address, various doctrines and positions of his opponents.—If we decline any other than desultory criticism on his publication, we are anxious

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to state that this does not arise from want of respect for its author, nor of consideration for the venerable body in which he held a dignified rank, we mean the clergy of the late Gallican church: but we take this line because the principles, both ecclesiastical and political, of the parties to the controversy here agitated, are so widely different from those which are professed by the Protestant subjects of our mixed government, as not to be equally interesting to our readers; and, as the discussion is as little intended as it is calculated for our meridian, we shall not animadvert at length on what we conceive to be false and dangerous in it, but mostly leave it to its fair operation on the minds of those for whose consideration it was penned.

No one indeed can feel inclined severely to criticize a partisan so candid as the author before us; who says that it is no part of his design to determine which form of government is best; and who adds that these forms ought to be so constructed that the supreme authority may not be arbitrary, nor directed by a will habitually capricious and tyrannical, such as is often found at the extremities of the social chain, namely, in despotism and democracy. If we examine the well tempered governments of late generally exercised in Europe, the friends of simple monarchy would say that authority assumes a character more paternal, when the sovereign is not thwarted by powers independent of him. On the contrary, the advocates of mixed governments contend that liberty is more secure, and public spirit more alive, where the powers are balanced. Men of understanding, however, adds the author, are of opinion that the excellence of a constitution is relative, depending on the character, interests, and local circumstances of the people living under it; and that by facts, not by abstract comparisons, these matters are to be judged.

Hobbes, *Montesquieu*, and *Rousseau*, are considered by this author as the Coryphæi of those antisocial doctrines which have shaken the world, and completely subverted one of its most antient governments. Even Hobbes, who detested popular commotions, is here placed at the head of the champions of revolution. The fatal errors, as the author conceives them, charged on him are, the doctrine of a state of nature anterior to the social; and that of the delegation of sovereignty by the people to an individual, a council, an assembly, or to a depository composed of all or any two of these.—*Montesquieu* is severely arraigned for maintaining that virtue was the principle of republics, and that monarchs were not amenable to the same rules of morality with their subjects. These tenets, says the *Grand-Vicar*, divested thrones of the support of public opinion,

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and directed the wishes of mankind to democratical governments.—*Rousseau*, he observes, adopted the maxim of Hobbes, that the sovereignty is composed of the rights which men possessed in a state of nature. This philosopher, he thinks, reasons more consequentially than any of his predecessors who imbibed the same principles. Assuming a state of nature, and an original contract, *Rousseau* easily proves that all power proceeds from the people, that they have a right to resume it whenever it is abused, and that they are the judges of the misconduct which is to warrant the resumption: but he is less happy, it is added, when he comes to reconcile the general will,—which, according to him, is always right and reasonable,—with the blind, violent, and versatile character of the people. On all sides, he sees nothing but corrupt and degraded men, incapable of the institutions for which he pleads. Thus the people being the rightful sovereign, but being in the state abovementioned, *Rousseau* draws the strange conclusion that there is in the world but one legitimate sovereign; that he is every where incapable of exercising his functions; and that the only alternative left to man is to submit to usurped power, or to return to the woods.

The author very strenuously denies the existence of a state of nature prior to that of society; and he founds his objections to this tenet on the testimony of history, the doctrines of scripture, and the voice of reason. He is wrong, however, in considering this notion as the invention of modern political philosophers; since the sages of antiquity, its historians, and its poets, speak of a state of nature as the original state of man. The Germans, in the time of Tacitus, were in circumstances nearly approaching to it; while their simple polity agrees admirably with the hypothesis of an original contract. There also exist at this day tribes so little removed from it, as to render its existence not only very conceivable, but very probable. The fact of extremely near approximations to it is indisputable. Whether men were originally found in that state, or whether it was the effect of degeneracy, is not a question in a political work: but it were easy to shew that the cavils on this head, in the present volume, amount to nothing more than a mere logomachy; and that the social state, which is here described as the natural condition of man, differs little from the state of nature of the advocate of an original contract.

On the principle of the original contract, the sovereign is the creature of the people; and men, we are told, never respect nor reverence any thing of their own creation, whereas they yield implicit homage to what is imposed on them. This position is laid down in far too unqualified a manner: but admitting

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mitting it in its fair sense, it is found to be consistent with fact. Chiefs have less authority in the early state of society. When their power comes to repose on acquiescence, in the room of election, or when the election has ceased to be any thing beyond a mere form, then their authority is more firm and vigorous. The author thinks that, if men are taught to believe that their governors derived their authority originally from the people, the bonds of society become loosened, and the dissolution of government is to be dreaded: but this objection supposes that the people pay no regard to utility, have no sense of their own interests, can easily be brought to act in concert, to indulge their caprice, and to abuse their power, when nothing is held forth that promises either pleasure or power. When it is contended that government is the result of an express or implied contract, it is not meant to be denied that its origin may have been overlooked; and that what actual suffrage first conferred may have come to be supported by acquiescence, and to rest very much on prescription. This is not inconsistent with the idea of an original contract, the conditions of which were submission on one side, and protection on the other; and by representing the matter in any other way, governors are less exalted than providence is libelled, and the whole human species degraded and vilified. Do not the opponents of this doctrine in fact say, that mankind are the property of a few masters, to resist whom—be they ever so unequal to their stations, ever so incapable of discharging the duties of them, ever so oppressive and tyrannical,—is impiety, immorality, and rebellion?

The present writer conceives that, because necessity impels men to erect civil polities, on that account the latter cannot owe their existence to their will and their contrivance. This idea shews great ignorance of the laws of the human mind. Because a thing is morally compulsory on a man, he does not for that reason cease to be a free agent, and to be active in it. A thing may be compulsory as to the substance, without being at all so as to the manner; and it may be indispensable, yet the volition of man may determine its commencement, its form, its duration, and its suspension. Government is only absolutely necessary within these qualifications, which admit of an agency and control over its creation, such as that for which the advocates of a compact contend. The theory of compact seems to us to be the only one that accounts satisfactorily for the origin of civil government, as well as that which best supplies laws to regulate the duties of governors and governed.

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Releasing rulers from all human control, and assigning no limit to the duty of obedience on the part of the subject, the *Grand-Vicar* endeavours to soften the shades of this sombre picture, by exhibiting the influence of religion; which represents the king and his poorest subject as equal, and the latter as *more* the favourite of heaven; and which states the former to be not less amenable than the latter to the laws, the ceremonies, and the ministers of our faith. He also shews how well religion is calculated to form paternal feelings and views in the minds of kings.—We do not agree with those who think that it does violence to religion to receive protection, countenance, and distinction from civil polity; that it is degraded by engaging in support of public order, and by inspiring obedience:—because it is a private concern, we do not see that a legislator is not on that account to avail himself of its aid, in order to elevate, to perfect, and to render more efficient his civil institutions;—we approve of these honourable services, which it is made to render to human policy, and we prize the benefits derived from it, as the handmaid and auxiliary of civil governments:—but we are not prepared to extend our approbation to that dependence of the throne on the altar, for which this writer contends, and which has proved (generally speaking) to be only a double tyranny. In how few instances, has the condition of the people been benefited by the religion of the prince? Has any portion of the liberty enjoyed in Europe proceeded from this cause? Has it not been rather owing to antient rights and privileges, to usages, and to a public opinion which monarchs the most arbitrary felt themselves obliged to respect? The subjects of a limited prince, whose government is that of law, may derive essential benefit from religion in the way here stated; a proper sense of religion is calculated to produce a most salutary influence on a person placed in this elevated situation; and a model of piety and virtue, seen on such an eminence, must incalculably benefit the community.

Disputing as we do the author's leading principles, it is not extraordinary if we dissent from the conclusions which he builds on them. When we consider how essential the ministry is in the Romish church, we are much surprised to find this divine arraign the conduct of the great majority of his brethren, who have sworn allegiance to the present government, on the condition of being allowed to exercise their functions. It may be said that the provisions of the *Concordat* infringe the privilges of the Gallican church, and that it was not competent to the holy father to new-model it, but in

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an oecumenical council, or at least not without the consent and concurrence of the church of France; and this notion, we believe, is consistent with the doctrine of the Gallican divines respecting the liberties of their church:—but we apprehend that, though they deem the proceeding irregular, they do not hold it to be void. The antient *Concordat* was not less objectionable on these grounds than the modern arrangement; and yet none of the divines have ever been censured for acting under it. Because the person of the sovereign, or the nature of the government, has been changed, is the minister of religion to decline the exercise of his sacred duties; or will considerations, that are merely civil, justify him in ceasing to administer consolation to the faithful, to reclaim and reform those whom he believes to be in an unconverted state? We wish not to confirm the throne of the new French Emperor, and we are aware of the great strength which it acquires from the new establishment, and the general conformity of the clergy to it:—but, judging of the matter impartially, we believe that, consistently with their religious engagements, and with the doctrines of their church, they were required to accept the offers made to reinstate them in their functions, on the condition of their swearing allegiance to the existing government. It is reluctantly that we hold opinions different from those of the author on this important point; and we should have been glad to have met with considerations which could move us from our prior notions respecting it: but the *Grand-Vicar* has here been sparing in argument, and has contented himself with animated and forcible declamation.

Since the preceding article was written, we have received a translation of this work, with a long Preface and Appendix by the translator; which will call for our notice on a future occasion.

ART. XI. *Quatuor Monumenta Æneæ è Terra in Suecia eruta, Tubulis æreis et brevi Commentatione illustrata, ab* I. HALLENBERG. *Accessere nonnulla de Litteratura Cufica.* 8vo. pp. 71. Stockholm. De Boffe, London. Price 6s. sewed.

THE learned M. HALLENBERG has in this work displayed great ingenuity and erudition, in commenting on certain curiosities which were discovered in the autumn of 1800, in the parish of Botkyrka, in the province of Sudermania, about two miles from Stockholm, on a pleasant farm, belonging to a rich merchant named *Tottie.* These antiquities consisted, 1st. of a brass *annulus*, or spiri-form *armilla*, or bracelet, as some suppose;—2. a pair of instruments or vessels, which at the

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bottom are cuniform, resembling what are called celts, having a handle on one side, and a cavity at the top, to which covers are adapted;—and 3. a *culter æneus*, or, as it is conjectured, a razor made of tin and copper. They were found as some labourers were digging on the top of a hill, deposited under a large stone lying very near the surface. To explain to whom these monuments could belong, and to what uses they were originally applied, are the purport of this dissertation.

The pair of objects represented in plates 2. and 3. occupy most of M. HALLENBERG's attention; and he does not consider them, as some have done, from merely regarding the cuniform shape of the lower extremities, to have been instruments, such as axes or hatchets, employed by the antients for cutting or cleaving: neither, from the cavity at their top, and from the covers belonging to them, does he suppose them to have been lachrymals deposited in tombs: but he is persuaded that they were sacred vessels; or the *vascula futilia*, which those navigators, who were intitiated into the mysteries of the Cabiri, carried with them in a box, or a cabinet, to secure to themselves the protection of the deities to whom they were consecrated, against the dangers of the seas. Many quotations are adduced to prove that these vases precisely answer the descriptions of the *vasa futilia* of the antients, which were so formed that they could not stand, and which must spill their contents if they were set down; whence they were termed *futilia*. The reason assigned for *a pair* of these sacred vessels having been discovered is, that to the *Dioscuri*, or Castor and Pollux, things were always consecrated in pairs; as also to the θεοὶ χθόνιοι or *dii inferi*. Navigators who escaped from shipwreck were accustomed to present a *pair of vases*, when they appeared at the sacred games at Delphos.—As the explanation of the notions of the antients respecting equal and unequal numbers is curious, we shall extract this part of the dissertation:

" *Veteres ut summum Numen tamquam omnis materiæ expers designarent, illud cum numeris conferebant. Unitas non ipsis est numerus:* " *sed* " *fons et origo numerorum, initium finisque omnium, neque ipsa principii* " *aut finis sciens, ad summum refertur Deum, et est illa mens, orta a* " *prima rerum caussa, ex summo enata Deo, quæ vices temporum nesciens,* " *in uno semper quod adest consistit ævo, mas eadem et femina, par ea-*" *dem atque impar,*" *ut ex antiquis philosophis adfert Macrobius in* Somn. Scip. L. 1. C. 6. *et quo spectat etiam Orphei ille versus:*

Ζεὺς ἄρσην γένετο, Ζεὺς ἄμβροτος; ἔπλετο νύμφη.
Deus, *sive* Jupiter et mas est et femina nescia mori.

Unitas et impar numerus vocabatur mas et pater; par vocabatur femina et mater. Numerus omnium primus impar erat tria, ideoque Deus mas et Deus pater: numerus omnium primus par erat duo, ideoque Deus

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consideratus ut femina et mater. Numerus impar consecratus erat Deo ut cœlestis et supra mundum materialem: numerus par autem consecratus erat Deo ut operans infra cœlum et in mundo materiali.'

It is concluded that the individuals, to whom these brazen vases belonged, had been initiated in the Samothracian mysteries, and that they were probably merchants who had crossed over from Britain; though this inference is not decisive, since it is allowed that the Samothracian rites were widely diffused; and since Tacitus records that Castor and Pollux were worshipped by the Naharvali, a people of Sweden. M. HALLENBERG, however, strenuously contends for these antiquities having been the property of foreigners; and to strengthen his opinion in this respect, he observes, that they were originally deposited in a box, or travelling chest: for between the two stones where they were found, was remarked a black vegetable earth, different from any of the surrounding soil, and which must have been formed by the rotting of the wood of which the box or cabinet including these sacred vessels was composed. We confess, however, that we are not disposed to lay much stress on this argument.

One of these vessels contains one ounce and six drachms, and the other one ounce and five drachms. The smallness of the cavity, compared with the general solidity of the whole, will probably raise a doubt of the justness of this explanation, notwithstanding such a mass of learning has been employed in its defence. Why these antiquities assume a wedge shape, it is not easy to say, unless they were employed to cut at one end, as well as to hold fluid in the other. The Indians have their tomahawks constructed to answer a double purpose; one end is made to cut, and the other serves for a pipe.

Round these vases, the spiri-form annulus, exhibited in the first plate, was entwined; which, M. HALLENBERG very reasonably infers, was never intended for an *armilla*, or bracelet; but probably represented the snakes or serpents with which the *dii sospitatores* were exhibited.

It is farther remarked, to explain the reason of a sacred knife or razor being found with these antiquities, that sailors, among the antients, when in imminent danger of being wrecked, cut off their hair, and dedicated it to the gods of the sea. To this custom, Juvenal alludes, in his xiith satire:

——— "*gaudent ibi vertice raso*
Garrula securi narrare pericula nautæ."

Also St. Paul, in Acts xxvii. 34, when he endeavours to console the crew, by assuring them that "not a hair should fall from the head of any of them."

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To the discussion on the *Cabiri*, are subjoined a few observations on the etymology of the name, which some derive from כביר *cabbir*, i. e. *magnus potens*, others from חבר *chabar*, i. e. *conjunxit*; whence חברים *chabbrim*, i. e. *socii conjuncti, ut dii Cabiri, qui a veteribus vocantur Gemini*; while others deduce the word from גבר *gabar, potens fuit*. M. HALLENBERG is not satisfied with any of these etymons. He regard *Cabiri* as a Gentile term, and thinks that the sacred personages called *Dii Cabiri* were so named from their mother *Cabira*:

'*Nusquam ideo dicuntur Cabiri, quia magni, potentes, socii; nusquam ideo, quia in Samothracia culti fuerunt, aut quod Samothracica religio eadem fuit, quæ Cabirorum; sed quoniam Cabiri, qui a matre sua ita dicti sunt, huic religioni initiati fuerunt; ideo alii quoque hujus religionis participes dicti sunt Cabiri. Demonstrandum esset matrem Cabirorum a Samothracica sacra lingua nomen suum fuisse nactam; at nec hoc demonstrari potest, nec quod ea his sacris unquam fuerit initiata.*'

The vignettes represent Cufic coins, on which M. HALLENBERG has been formerly occupied (see M. R. Vol. xxxiv. N. S. p. 483.), and of which explanations are added. The account of these coins terminates with the copy of a note from Lord Nelson, requesting Professor Dixon, of the university of Rostock, to accept a medal struck in commemoration of the battle of the Nile.

ART. XII. *Mélanges de Littérature*, &c. *i. e.* Literary Miscellanies. Published by J. B. A. SUARD, perpetual Secretary to the Class of the French Language and Literature, in the National Institute, and Member of the Legion of Honour. Vols. IV. and V. 8vo. Paris. 1804. Imported by De Boffe.

WE had occasion very recently to declare our opinion of the merits of this author *; and the favourable opinion which we pronounced seems to have been in unison with the suffrages of the public in his own country, since, in the preface to these volumes, the appearance of them is ascribed to the flattering reception which the former had experienced. The continuation of the work, now before us, is marked by the same liberal notions, by the same masterly and comprehensive views of the subjects treated, and by the same ease and elegance of style.

Vol. IV. opens with a history of the French theatre. We could have wished that the accomplished author had discussed the subject more generally, and given a history of the origin

* See Rev. Vol. xliii. N. S. p. 513.

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and progress of the drama in modern Europe: but we are aware that it is not congenial with the French character to make researches into any literature that is not native; and that their writers have rarely sufficient candour to proclaim and illustrate any merit which does not belong to their own country. The genuine spirit and real attainments of a scholar, which are apparent in the performances of M. SUARD, incline us to believe that he is superior to this narrowness of mind which so generally degrades his countrymen. In the limited view which he has taken of the subject, he has intitled himself to all the praise which belongs to a production displaying extensive information, just criticism, and laudable diligence. It invites an assiduous perusal from all amateurs of the drama.

In his preface, the author thus opens his mind to the public:

"I have always felt a greater desire to be acquainted with the usages of the middle ages than with those of antiquity; if they afford less scope to the imagination, they repose on something more solid. Athens and the Piræus appear to have almost a fabulous existence; but when I hear of Paris and the Seine, I can realize what is said to me. Paying, as I do, twelve livres on the entrance of a hogshead of wine into Paris, it amuses me when I read that Louis-le-Gros derived the same sum in a year from the duties paid at one of the two gates, by which alone commodities at that time could be brought into the capital. When I peruse the daily bulletin of the fashions of our city, I think with wonder of the female attire in the time of Charles V. which remained more than a century unchanged. Many among us are better acquainted with the Roman costume, and the Spartan vestments, than with the habits in which their great grand-mothers appeared; they are, with respect to many usages not very antient, in the same situation with a little girl, born in the first years of the revolution, whom I heard thus address her mother: "Mama, is it true that there have been kings?" Our citizens go to see *Phædra* and *Cinna*, without knowing that we had theatres as far back as the time of Charles VI.; and they witness the feats of Harlequin at the Vaudeville, without being aware that the same personage was seen precisely the same that he is now, both as to his dress, and the feats performed by him, as early as the reign of Francis I."

The present history begins with the *Brotherhood of the Crucifixion*, and descends to the time of *Corneille* and his cotemporaries. It is to this *Brotherhood*, the author contends, that the modern sons of Thespis owe their origin; and not to the representations of the Troubadours, as it has been maintained by some writers. The elegant literary entertainments, which amused the great in the south of France, ended in the disgraceful tricks of jugglers and mountebanks; while the coarse

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and fantastic exhibitions, called the *Mysteries*, became the source of the dramatic representations which, in modern days, have reached the highest summit of elegance and refinement.

The practice on great festivals of exhibiting the principal events mentioned in the Scriptures, in pantomime, and also by scenes accompanied with dialogue, goes back into remote antiquity; since the pilgrims who had visited the holy land were the actors in these representations; and they were intended solely to serve the purposes of devotion. Out of these pious exercises, grew the *Mysteries* of which we hear so much in the fourteenth century, and the actors in which were called the *Brotherhood of the Crucifixion*. In 1402, they obtained permission from Charles VI. to represent whatever mystery it should please them to select from the lives of the saints, or from the Old and New Testament; and soon afterward they hired a very spacious hall, near the gate of St. Denys, whither the public crowded to witness their marvellous performances. Our drama, observes the author, literally sprang from the bosom of the church; and so openly was the relation acknowleged by the former, that in some parishes the vespers were held at a later hour, in order that they might not interfere with the pious theatricals. The drama, in its origin, was encouraged by the monarch, the church, and the people; the enthusiasm which it excited is hardly credible; its reputation spred to the extremity of the North; and in one instance it is said to have produced a very singular catastrophe. A king of Sweden, or Denmark, the author is not able to ascertain which, was present at the representation of a mystery; when an actor called *Longis*, who sustained the part of the pretorian soldier, being heated by his acting, really pierced with his spear the unhappy man who was attached to the cross, and who fell on Mary, and crushed her with his weight. The king, indignant, leapt on the stage, and with his scymetar severed the head of *Longis* from his body; while the audience, pitying the fate of the actor, fell on the monarch, and served him as he had served *Longis*.

Though these spiritual dramas continued for a long time to be the principal amusements in this way, we are told that they remained stationary during the whole period, and that they lost nothing of their original grossness. If we can discern in them no approaches towards refinement, we latterly find much of heathen learning blended with them; thus the whole story of Œdipus is told of Judas. The latter, like the former, is exposed on an unknown shore, in consequence of a prophecy; he then slays his father, and marries his mother; and it is on being informed of his birth, and of his crimes, that he joins our

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our Lord.—They always reckon Mahomet among the heathen deities. They term the pagan high priests, bishops; they represent St. Denys, who first preached the gospel at Paris, as brought before the sheriffs of the city; and they make the devil represent our Saviour as highly skilled in Latin and the Hebrew. In the scripture-pieces, they restrain the personages within the parts assigned to them in the sacred narrative: but they are not thus strict when they bring the devils on the stage; who, according to the author, are the most entertaining characters in their dramas. It is remarkable that the sharpest satires in those performances were directed against the church, the monks, and the nuns. They also introduce pagans on the stage, who make very free with our Saviour, and with the Christian rite of baptism.

Contemporary with the mysteries, existed what were called moralities and farces; and from the latter of these has arisen our modern comedy: of which there needs no farther proof than the comedy of the *Avocat Patelin*, which is no other than the farce of this period, *Maitre Pierre Pathelin*, not essentially altered, but adapted to modern rules, and to the times. The moralities and farces, however, were not represented in the same places in which the mysteries were exhibited. The tale of one of the moralities, called *la Moralité de la Villageoise*, is here related to serve as a specimen of the manner of these performances.—A nobleman, in love with the daughter of one of his vassals, causes his passion to be made known to her by his valet, whom she repels with indignation, and whom her father is near killing. Informed of this reception, the *Seigneur* himself appears, and ill treats the father of Eglantine. The daughter rescues her parent by promising all that the other desires, on condition of being allowed an hour's respite; and she employs this time in requesting her father to take away her life, in order to save her from infamy. The nobleman, who observes what passes, renounces his projects, extols the virtue of Eglantine, enfranchises her father, and exempts him from taxes.—In our days, he would have married her, and it would have been the novel of Pamela: but antiently, it seems, there were not so many lords as at present, who fell violently in love with their servants.

Though the mysteries suggested the introduction of tragedies, it is here denied that the authors of these very different performances had any reciprocal connection. The one was designed for the people, the other for the court. Still, as if one had been intended to replace the other, we find that, four years after the mysteries had been abolished by authority, the *Cleopatra* of *Jodelle* was acted; which was soon followed by a comedy

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comedy of the same author called *Eugène*. The merits of these performances are here elaborately examined, and nicely ascertained.—The mysteries had been prohibited, but the actors of them were possessed of the exclusive privilege of exhibiting scenic representations. *Jodelle*, in this state of things, could not have his tragedy represented publicly by a regular company, and was obliged to have recourse to the mode pursued in our modern private theatricals. He and his friends took each a part, and several eminent authors of that day appeared as actors on the occasion.—All orders of people are charged with dissolute manners in the old comedies, whether clergy, nobles, or citizens. An arrangement between lovers, as well as a marriage, serves for a denouement; and a marriage never takes place where it can do more for the parties than consecrate their union. The researches of the author on this subject place in a strong light the general corruption of the times.

M. SUARD observes that the comedies of that day, even those which seem the most sprightly, did not require any superior talents. Licentious manners, described in a style still more licentious, assist much in conducting the intrigue, and in supporting the interest of a comic performance; when all means are permitted, it is strange if the end is not gained; and when no restraint is placed on speech, it would be singular if no mirth were excited. Old dotards, young libertines, women of all sorts, (except the respectable,) two or three disguises, and as many unlucky discoveries, are the materials which were worked up by the comic muse of this period.

The promise of better things, held out by *Garnier* in tragedy, and by *Rivey* in comedy, is described by the writer with his usual precision; his criticisms are those of a master, and cannot be read without great benefit by the candidates for dramatic fame. The stage does not seem to have made any advances towards improvement, from this æra to the epoch created by the entrance of *Corneille* on his career. The civil wars were hostile to attempts of this sort; the actors were little followed, ill provided with plays, did no honour to their profession; and most of the performances of those days were represented in the manner of private theatricals. The dramatic author was a man of fortune, his piece was seen gratis, and he was sure of praise; and thus was wanting every stimulus to exertion. The Greeks and Latins, and the rules which they observed, were disregarded; and the stories were drawn from romances, and from the Italian and Spanish theatres. The stage was rapidly degenerating, and seemed destined, in its turn, to experience the fate of the farces and mysteries. It was already too low to invite any individual, merely with a view to fame, to attempt its deliverance from the contempt under which it

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it lay, and from the oblivion with which it was threatened.—M. SUARD remarks that it was a poet who first drew the theatre from obscurity, but that it was a troop of comedians which restored it from the state of degradation into which it had sunken. About the close of the sixteenth century, were formed two companies of comedians; one of which took an assignment of the charter of the brotherhood, and has never been dissolved, but has been perpetuated to our time under the name of the company of the *Comédie Française*; the other established itself at the *Marais*, and exhibited representations three times in a week. The latter company engaged in its service *Alexander Hardy*, who became the author of eight hundred theatrical pieces, of which forty-three only have reached us; and of which many were in the space of eight days composed, represented, and (which is worse) applauded. He was *author to the company*, and bound by contract to supply them with as many pieces as they should want.

The first theatrical production, a comedy of the great *Corneille*, passed through the hands of *Hardy*, and he pronounced it to be *a good farce enough*. The crudities of this prolific dramatist are here ascribed to the haste in which, owing to his poverty, he was obliged to compose. If, says the author, he added little to what is to be found in the writers whom he copied, he had the merit of not disfiguring his models, which was no inconsiderable praise at that time: his plans are well conducted, his scenes well arranged, and some of them are not deficient in interest; the dialogue, though never very pointed, is often natural: but though he was free from the grossness of the old comedy, he was not proof against the pedantry that was infecting the age in which he lived.

Another cause of the low state of the stage, in the sixteenth century, is to be found in the kind of audience which attended it; an audience very different from that with which it has been honoured in later times. All the nobles of that day resided in their castles, which they left only at the call to arms; and if they sometimes visited Paris, on business, or to pay their court, or if they came on occasion of some great festival, or a royal marriage, they abandoned the pleasures of the theatre to the lower classes. Even under Louis XIV., who had contrived to draw all the grandees of the kingdom to his court, the drama was rarely attended by the great. Madame *Sevigné*, who lived in the most refined society, went seldom to the theatre. *I have lately*, says she, *been disorderly, they took me to see Berenice.* Still she is ever talking of *Corneille*. It was then customary once to go and see the works of the great masters; they afterward employed themselves to study and digest them, because

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because at that time they relished the compositions as much as we now do the representations.

The progress of French comedy, from such licentiousness that the historian cannot give examples of it, to the matchless refinement which was imparted to it by a *Moliere*, is here very skilfuly traced. Of the author's felicity in this part of his narrative, the subsequent passage furnishes a fair specimen:

'The idea (he observes) of extracting the comic from the delineation of the characters was only indicated in the *Menteur*; it was *Moliere* who made all men feel that a comedy ought to have a moral; and that a regard to decency in the conduct of the piece, which a deference to public opinion requires, is not to be confounded with the requisite of its impressing a virtuous principle on the mind. It was this great dramatist who first fully demonstrated that this moral effect is the source of the comic, the foundation of the piece, because there can exist nothing ridiculous which is not a defect in the character, or a perverseness of temper; and that there can be no true comic as it relates to character, but as it exhibits this defect and this perverseness in a strong light, by which it establishes at the same time a moral truth. The circumstance which constitutes the immorality of *George Dandin* is that the moral truth, which it is the design of the piece to impress, is not so important as the tendency of the corrupt manners which it exhibits is dangerous; the moral end does not compensate for the profligacy: but were this moral end wanting,—if the husband, instead of being a fool who has sacrificed his repose and his honor to a high alliance, had been a well-meaning reasonable man;—then, instead of being in truth scarcely a decent, though a comic and lively piece, it would be only a disgusting farce.'

Fontenelle informs us that, but for an event which happened in a provincial town, *Hardy* would have had no successor. A young man introduced a friend to a lady of whom he was enamoured: but the friend won her heart and she married him; and the delight which he felt in this adventure made him a poet. The successful person was the great *Corneille*.—In order to appreciate the merit of the father of the French drama, the author remarks, we ought to peruse the productions of his time, and those of the age which preceded it.

'The comparative merits of *Corneille* and *Racine* (says M. Suard) having been considered by a man of matchless talents, and a master of the art which they carried to its utmost height, I shall contemplate him only with regard to the time anterior to him, without presuming to extend my discussion to that which was posterior. There remains nothing to be said of *Corneille* the predecessor of *Racine*: but as successor to *Hardy*, he perhaps is not so well known as he merits.—We can only estimate *Corneille* correctly by transporting ourselves to the time in which he lived; by means of him, that time is connected with the present; his works form the base of our drama; and they are among the finest pieces of which our theatre boasts. *Corneille*, if I may so speak, is of our own age, but his cotemporaries are not. *The Cid*, the

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the Horatii, Cinna, and *Polieuctes,* form the commencement of a series which unites our literature to that of the reign of *Richelieu,* and of the minority of Louis XIV. To us, *Corneille* is modern, and *Rotiou* antient; how can it be believed that *Wenceslaus* bears a later date than the *chefs d'œuvre* of *Corneille?*—If the rivals of our first dramatist did not share his glory, they were able to thwart his success. It is hardly credible that the fame of the *Cid* was balanced by that of the *Marianne* of *Tristan.*'

We must confess that this view of the subject, however instructive it may be to students and amateurs of the drama, leads the author to disquisitions which are of little general interest, and which will prove wearisome to most readers. *Corneille* himself is a sublime topic; his beauties will delight as long as taste and refinement shall remain: but the defects of *Scudery* and *Mayret,* it is not very amusing minutely to depict and expose.

Commenting on the faults of the first productions of *Corneille,* the writer observes that at least they were worthy of the scenes in which they were to be exhibited. The comedians were accustomed to buy their dramas for three crowns, and the authors bestowed on the composition a proportionate attention. A drum was beaten at the door of the theatre, in order to collect an audience.—How shall we appreciate that genius which, bearing the French drama with it, ascended from this low state to the height on which we behold *Corneille!*

The first instance of *Corneille's* leaving behind him the age in which he lived occurred in the *Widow;* a piece which discovered the talent that creates and consecrates rules. If we find not in it the sprightly comic of *Molière,*—and it is perhaps *Molière* alone that knew how to extract it from characters the most serious, and from situations the most elevated,—still we must allow the *Widow* to have been the first model of high comedy.

At length the *Medea* was represented; a language new to the theatre was heard; tragedy assumed a tone of grandeur and dignity till then unknown; new sentiments were called forth, the minds of men brooded on new ideas, and a revolution was preparing:—the *Cid* appeared, and it was complete. Improvements have since been made: but the basis of the art, the general system, remain untouched. *Athaliah* and *Merope* repose on the same foundations with the *Cid,* and all that we admire is an imitation of that production which had been preceded by nothing of the kind. Its fame instantaneously sped over France and Europe; it was translated into all languages, even into Spanish; and in some of the provinces, it had passed into a proverb, where it was customary to say, *it is as beautiful as the Cid.*

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This great dramatist despised his petty rivals too much to take any notice of their malignant remarks: but when the Academy was constrained by *Richelieu* to criticize the *Cid*, he became indignant that in so short a time judges should be appointed to examine a composition, which at first was considered as above all praise. The Academy was reduced to an awkward dilemma. As yet in its infancy, and placed between the Cardinal who was always ready to punish, and public opinion which was ready to revolt, it was however able to satisfy all the world except *Corneille*. He complained bitterly of the criticism, which was correct, but which was not accompanied by those eulogiums which were equally merited. The testimonies of esteem offered to him by men of letters, and the good opinion and the caresses of the world, consoled him; highly in request, he was careless of appearances, and his conversation was dull and but little inviting. Those who had been eager to see him, when they departed, exclaimed that he ought to be heard only at the theatre. If his friends remonstrated with him on these trivial faults, he would answer them with a smile, *I am nevertheless Peter Corneille.*

To form an age capable of producing *Racine*, the author deems to be the highest merit of *Corneille*. They are talents of the second order which imitate and consummate. It is only at long intervals that creative geniuses visit mankind: but at all times nature sends forth minds capable of receiving the impressions of the beautiful and the true. Scattered in profusion on the surface of the earth, they languish while night prevails: but when the sun appears, and its presence warms the atmosphere, penetrated with a fire of which the source was not in themselves, they are capable of expanding under its genial influence.

We are sorry that we cannot insert the pathetic tale of the noble-minded *Duryer*; who, independent and full of ardour when oppressed by poverty, was the most respectable of the rivals of *Corneille*.

'The more (continues M. SUARD) *Corneille* is examined, the more shall we be penetrated with the conviction that, in different circumstances, he would have avoided almost all the faults with which he is chargeable. Is it to be supposed that he who effected such a reformation in the drama would not have been able to observe points of propriety, had there been in the age a feeling with regard to them? *Corneille*, it has been said, is above all when he rises, but when he descends he is below mediocrity; sublime when his genius supports him, we do not even recognize him when this forsakes him. In such a performance as a tragedy, in which the rules to be observed are without number, and in which the invention and management of accessary incidents call for such high skill, where is the genius that will

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will not at times find his subject fail him, and be obliged to have recourse to art? *Corneille* created the art: but it was given to others to extend and perfect it.

'Faults in style have been imputed to *Corneille*. The orthography of the language, it should be recollected, was not fixed in his time, and the licence which prevailed in this respect has occasioned the only imperfect verses which are to be found in his works. Had the case been otherwise, we should doubtless have seen in his pages numerous instances of happy versification which are now wanting. Restrained by a more correct dialect, he would have exerted greater care in managing it; and being kept in check by precise rules, his mind, fired by difficulty, would have discovered new paths of excellence. In order to be a perfect poet, it was necessary to have not only the aid of principles to direct, but that of precepts; which, confining genius within more narrow bounds, render more forcible and striking the explosion by which it manifests itself.'

Here terminate M. SUARD'S remarks on the French theatre. A political *jeu d'esprit* next ensues; and we then arrive at the discussion of some delicate topics, on which we shall refrain from giving any judgment; let the parties interested form their own. They occur in letters addressed by a female to *M. de Ségur*, relative to his treatise on *Women**.—This lady tells the historian that her sex, though often admonished that the homage offered by reason is the most honourable of all, are still inclined to dispense with some of that honour, if they receive instead a larger portion of flattery.

'Be on your guard,' says she; 'he who writes verses on us, nay even he who speaks ill of and abuses us, is more likely to please us than the man who judges us. The description of our manners, of our general character, and of our lot, at different epochs, and in different countries, is what you present, and it is truly our history. There have been galleries of celebrated women, and lives of female authors, but all this appertains not to the comprehensive history of our sex. A celebrated woman is an exception to general rules; or, as the botanists say of certain flowers which come out too brilliant, *a disease of the species*. A learned woman, says *La Bruyère* is regarded just as a finely finished weapon; it is exquisitely wrought, and admirably polished; it is a cabinet-piece which is shewn to the curious, but which is of no use, and is employed neither in war nor the chace. What *La Bruyère* called a learned woman we now term a female author. A woman of this sort engages the notice of those men, who, being naturally deficient, are desirous of giving the world an idea that they possess talents. A man solicits the notice of a *savante*, he endeavours to please her, and his sole motive is the distinction of being agreeable to a woman of parts; he never asks himself whether she has a heart; and when he has rendered her miserable, he expresses astonishment that a woman of genius should be so difficult to be

* See Rev. Vol. xlii. N. S. p. 484.

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consoled. Others are amazed that a woman of talents should be so easily deceived; they discern in her nothing but her talents, and they imagine that they have done all that she expects, if they shew that they have fine understandings, and if they have extolled her genius; her reputation procures to her the homage of fools, and the attentions of the vain; the man of merit seeks from her company intellectual gratification only; or, if she is able to inspire him with a partiality for her, she only effects this by convincing him that a woman of talents is at bottom but a woman.

'You are right, Sir, when you say that the consideration of women in society diminishes in proportion as they make good their claims to the superiority of talents and success on which they pride themselves. While the few had less *éclat*, the greater number were treated with far more deference. When knights were so profuse of their lives in the cause of the fair, we hear of no miracles of talents, no authors among them; when they influenced the fate of states and kingdoms, they did not amuse the public with their literary productions. Do you imagine, Sir, that this change is voluntary on our part? Do you know who would have set up for an author, if she could have made herself a fine woman? Could she have commanded *adorers* of her charms, would she have sought *admirers* of her talents? Believe me, we attempt not to fill a large space with our fame, till we find that we can create no interest in our own little circle; and that when we endeavour to make people talk *of* us, it is only when they cease to talk *to* us.'

Fine strokes of character are discoverable in the subsequent descriptions; and such as, we think, are borrowed from nature:

'A man only gets the better of his passions by indifference or selfishness: but a woman must always love something, her husband, her gallant, her dog, or her chamber maid. An old man is governed by his servants; an old woman loves them. It is this necessity for loving something, which attaches itself where it can, and which reproduces itself in a thousand forms in the lives of women, that composes their character and their history; it is the basis of maternal affection, the most perfect of all affections, because it is that which is most conformable to the nature of women, and the most analagous to their character. This passionate devotion, and this exalted charity, of which women have given so many examples, are only modifications of the same sentiment, the sentiment which animates their existence. In its youth, this sentiment is love; it grows old, and has only become the more valuable; less confined to one object, it is the charm which unites many together; it is by this feeling that a woman becomes necessary to all who encircle her; and hence it is that, to her last sigh, when almost lifeless, yet still mindful of others, the mother of a family appears to be the soul of a body, which seems ready to crumble as soon as she ceases to exist.

'It is this that supports our strength and our activity, that gives us a longer and a more complete existence. See that old man stretched on his couch: he vegetates, he scarcely lives; if he is sensible

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sensible to existence, it is through discontent and peevishness; if he speaks, it is to complain: near to him you see his aged wife, ever attentive, anticipating his wants, listening to his complaints, and divining his caprices; she alone can arrange the pillow on which he reclines his head, or the footstool on which his aching feet repose; she it was that invented this piece of furniture, which holds collected all that he is accustomed most to require; and that warm garb is for him, about which her hands are so busily employed. Without doubt, the object of so many cares, and of so much zeal, was also that of the tender sentiments of her heart; and happy in recollections of what she owes him, she finds her only pleasure in the attentions which she now pays to him.'

We could with pleasure dwell longer on these lively and interesting *Fragments concerning Women:* but we must hasten to another subject.—After several miscellaneous papers, we find some valuable remarks on the Grecian orator Isocrates, by the Abbé *Arnaud.*

'Isocrates studied under the ablest masters of his time in philosophy and rhetoric; he passionately loved glory; and the desire of distinguishing himself, and of bearing a part in the public administration, animated all his proceedings. In order to this end, besides possessing information and a turn for business, it was necessary to excel in eloquence: but nature having denied him both voice and self-command, without which it is impossible to sway the multitude, he directed his efforts to composition. In the first place, he proposed to give to eloquence more of force and majesty, by breaking down the tramels which a contracted and ridiculous philosophy had thrown around it. He abandoned those vain subtilties in which the sophists lost themselves, as well as those sublime obscurities in which they were so fond of being inveloped: he confined himself to interesting questions, such as appeared to him calculated to render his country happy, and his fellow-citizens virtuous. His talents corresponded with the grandeur of his views. Youth flocked from all parts to be his pupils, and to form themselves on his lessons; some of whom afterwards became orators, some great statesmen, and others polished and profound historians.

'In the orations of Isocrates, every word has its place; his diction is pure, and no obscure or obsolete phrase disfigures his style: but it is seldom lively, rapid, and vehement; it is various and splendid, but hardly ever simple and natural. Whatever obstructs a smooth pronunciation, Isocrates rejects; he studies above all to measure and round his periods, and to give them a cadence like that of verse. All his discourses are delightful to peruse, and well adapted for panegyric, but are unfit for the turbulent proceedings of the bar, and the tumult attending popular harangues. The tribune and the bar require vehemence and passion, which do not comport with nicely measured periods.

'All is systematic in the style of Isocrates, words answer to words, members to members, and phrases to phrases; we even meet with

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chiming terminations. This artificialness, if too frequent and too manifest, offends the ear, and obscures the sense.

'Magnificence of style, according to Theophrastus, is derived from three sources; choice of words, the happy arrangement of them, and the imagery which enlivens the whole. Isocrates chose well his words, but there is too much affectation in his arrangement; his figures are either too far fetched, or discordant, or extravagant, so that he becomes cold and *mannered*; besides, in order the better to tune his style, and frame his periods with nicety, he makes use of inefficient words, and unnecessarily lengthens out his discourses.

'We are far from asserting that these faults deform all his writings; his composition is sometimes simple and natural; he properly separates its members, and disposes of them neatly: but in general he is too much the slave of full and rounded periods; and the elegance which he affects too often degenerates into redundancy. In fine, if the style of Isocrates be wanting in the natural and the simple, it must be owned that it displays magnificence and grandeur; its construction is sublime, and of a character almost more than human. We may compare his manner to that of Phidias, whose chisel sent forth heroic and divine forms of such superior dignity.

'With respect to invention and disposition, Isocrates excels in both; he varies his subject with admirable art, and guards against languor by an infinity of episodes, all naturally introduced. But what renders him for ever deserving of praise is the *choice* of his subjects, always noble, always grand, always directed to the public good. He did not propose merely to embellish the art of speech, but he was desirous to complete the mind, to teach his disciples to govern their families and their country.'

The Abbé next shews that the virtue and patriotism of the Greek rhetorician were equal to his skill in composition.—The judgment of the Halicarnassian on the style of Isocrates leads M. ARNAUD to hazard some reflections on *inversion*, which call for discussion; and if our limits allowed us to enter on it, we should find little difficulty in shewing that such a method does not accord with the genius of modern languages, and that its introduction would not be attended with any good effects in regard to style.

An essay occurs in this collection, (apparently also by M. ARNAUD, having the signature A.) offering some thoughts on Greek tragedy, which well deserve attention. The writer supposes the object of it to have been to generate in the people a love of liberty, and a hatred of tyranny; and he grounds his notions on what Socrates is represented as saying in Plato's dialogue intitled *Minos*: in which he ascribes the unfavourable notions entertained of Minos to his quarrel with the Athenians, whose poets and learned men have blackened his memory. It was neither Thespis nor Phrynicus, says Socrates, that created tragedy; it had its origin among us, it is the work of our ancestors,

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cestors, who, in order to avenge themselves for the tribute so long exacted from them by Minos, tarnished the fame of a wise monarch.—The importance given to these representations, under the antient governments, will not, the Abbé thinks, allow us to doubt that they had a political object. They must have operated powerfully in this way; they terrified the people by the pictures which they exhibited of the cruel and oppressive proceedings of tyrants; they taught them to detest an absolute government, and to look for happiness and repose in liberty alone.

'It may be observed that tyranny was no where so much execrated as at Athens. The assassins of tyrants were placed as it were among the gods. We learn from Pliny that the first statues erected by the Athenians, in honour of citizens, were those of the celebrated tyrannicides Harmodius and Aristogiton. It should also be recollected that, at Athens, tragedy was represented at the command of the magistrates and at the public expence, while comedy was only acted by private individuals, without any aid from the state.—If it be asked why Aristotle does not treat of this design of tragedy as it is expressly stated by Plato, the obvious answer is to be derived from his connection with Philip and his son Alexander; whom he must have offended, had he discussed such a topic.'

The writer supposes that, while Aristotle was thus influenced, dramatists themselves, yielding to circumstances, no longer regarded the original purpose of tragedy in their performances, but were contented to cause strong emotions in the spectators by the exhibition of calamitous and lamentable scenes. There have been, he observes, the old and the new comedy: the changes in the government produced a species of comedy less satirical, and better suited to a monarchical system. A similar change is here supposed to have taken place in tragic compositions, and it is concluded that Aristotle's description refers to those of the later class.—The author very modestly states and very ingeniously supports the views which he gives of this subject.

This fourth volume concludes with a disquisition on English Ballads, by M. Suard; which, however it may be regarded in France, can produce no new interest in this country, since it is almost wholly extracted from the admirable Essay on the Antient English Minstrels by Bishop Percy. In a note, the author very properly objects to the definition of humour as given by Congreve; he also very justly remarks that the character has more connection with it than the mind, and that a better notion of it will be gained from the perusal of a scene in Vanburgh, or a satire of Swift, than from any description or definition ever yet attempted. As to the monopoly of this

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quality which we claim, he observes that, 'if it be a species of pleasantry which is not to be found in Aristophanes, Plautus, or Lucian among the antients, nor in Ariosto, Berni, or Pulci and others among the Italians, nor in the Spanish Cervantes, nor the German Rabener, nor in Pantagruel, the satirist Menippus, the comic romance, nor in the comedies of *Moliere*, *Dufrény*, or *Regnard*,—we know not what it is, and we will save ourselves the trouble of seeking it.' We cannot say whether the author here intended to exemplify humour, while talking of it: but, if he did, he has failed, for he is only arch and sarcastic.

The very agreeable qualities of this miscellany have, as in the former instance, detained us unusually long in reporting its contents. We cannot now attempt any analysis of the 5th volume, which must be reserved for a future opportunity.

[*To be continued.*]

ART. XIII. *OEuvres politiques, littéraires, et dramatiques*, &c. *i e.* The political, literary, and dramatic Works of GUSTAVUS III. King of Sweden; to which is added his Correspondence. Vols. I. and II. 8vo. Paris. 1805. London. Imported by De Boffe.

ROYAL authors demand peculiar respect and attention, both on the score of their rare appearance, and on account of the august characters which they sustain and the elevated situations which they occupy. The sentiments of kings, and their habits of thought, are of more importance than those of other men; and, as being intimately connected with the happiness or misery of millions, they form a subject of the most interesting study. Science, letters, and the arts court their protection; and it is always considered as honourable to themselves, as well as a symptom of good augury to their subjects, when they descend from the throne, and pride themselves on becoming their cultivators and advocates. How gratifying is it to follow princes into their retirement, to observe them detached from "all the pomp and circumstance" of royalty, and to obtain the just amount of their intellect and virtue! History will record their public acts: but, in order to delineate their real character, we must acquire a knowlege of their minds, a task which is not easily accomplished; for in general it is the object of rulers to conceal their thoughts and principles of conduct. It is possible that the pen may be employed for this purpose, as well as other means; yet it is certain that a man will, in some degree or mode, develope himself in his compositions.

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Writers must surely be flattered, when kings display their eloquence in commendation of letters, and promote the study of them by their own commanding example. Gustavus III. the late king of Sweden, was among the few monarchs who was truly attached to science and literature, and who promoted them less from motives of vanity than personal love. Composition was his amusement; and, as he was in the habit of diffusing his thoughts on paper, we have an opportunity of studying him in his writings. The works here published are honourable to his reputation, as they manifest a well-directed mind, and exhibit him both as a scholar and a patriot-king. If we may judge of him by his speeches and discourses, he appears to have been highly estimable; and we feel the utmost execration of the horrible murder by which so illustrious a life was shortened *. We shall not here attempt to sketch the leading features of his life and reign, because we take it for granted that, when this work, which is to consist of five volumes, is completed, some biographical memoir will be subjoined. The editor, we learn, is patronized by the present king of Sweden; whose filial piety, it may fairly be presumed, will induce a wish to see the most ample justice done to the memory of his lamented parent.

The first of these two volumes includes discourses pronounced to the Swedish academy, on the day of its installation, and on the restoration of that of belles-lettres, arts, and antiquities; an eloge on senator and Field-Marshal *Lennart Torstenson*;—the oration at the interment of the king's father, Adolphus Frederic, read by the Bishop of Liuköping;—his several political speeches to his parliaments;—reflections on the utility and advantages of a national costume;—opinion on the liberty of the press, &c.

In his oration to the Swedish academy, Gustavus is the warm advocate of letters and the arts:

'I am not ignorant, (says he,) that there are some persons who question the utility of *belles lettres* and the arts, who regard them as a superfluity which enervates the mind, and as an object of dissipation, calculated only to amuse the leisure of an effeminate race; who think, in one word, that the arts ought to be banished from the bosom of a bold and courageous people. But for what does bravery itself combat, if it be not to acquire immortality? Why does the useful magistrate sacrifice his repose, and subject himself to the injustice of his cotemporaries, and to the cabals of the envious, but from the hope that enlightened posterity will one day do justice to his memory? and how could he cherish this hope, if writers did not exist, who,

* He was assassinated in the night of 16th March 1792, by one *Ankerstroem*.

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formed by the exercise of genius, undertake their defence, and transmit their names to posterity? What employment is more delightful to a man of letters, what a more noble recreation for the statesman, than to renew the memory of the benefactors of our country? And who will be able to erect their judgment on a more solid basis, or better appreciate and describe their qualities, than those individuals who have been occupied from their birth in the improvement of our native tongue; or those who, elevated to the most important offices in the state, are well acquainted with the great principles on which the art of government is founded?

'To honour the memory of great men is to invite their descendants to imitate them. It is as if we said, "Soldiers, judges, statesmen, citizens, you who inherit the names of these heroes, or who now fill their places, attend; behold the tribute which grateful posterity pays to their memories; and merit, if it be possible, merit the same encomiums. Your names will be carried before the tribunal of posterity; do not degenerate from your ancestors; your reputation, like theirs, is in your own power."

These sentiments from a King are peculiarly striking; and as Gustavus seems to feel their force, he must certainly have been solicitous to lay a sure basis for future fame.

The eloge on Field-Marshal *Lennart Torstenson* gained the first prize of the Swedish academy in 1786; and we are assured, in a remark copied from the Memoirs of the Academy, that during the deliberation on the pieces presented, the academy was perfectly uninformed of its author; that it was rigorously examined by the members appointed for the purpose; and that it obtained the prize only by its superior merit. If any doubt could remain respecting the ignorance of the academicians relative to the author of this discourse, it must be removed by the circumstance that observations and criticisms were made on it in the king's presence. It was not till the prize, deposited in the hand of the secretary, remained without being claimed, that the academy began to suspect the high honour which had been done to them. The king, however, when he made himself known as the author of the victorious essay, did not refuse the prize which was adjudged to him, but received the medal, and ordered it to be preserved in his collection. This fact is said to be without example in the history of letters.

It is perhaps a circumstance not less singular, for a son to compose the funeral oration which is pronounced by the dignified head of the church over the tomb of his royal father. Viewing the deceased through the tears of filial affection, he called his subjects to cherish a remembrance of him as the best and mildest of princes: but panegyric is preceded by sentiments which bespeak a good heart, and a mind prepared to seek fame in the paths of virtue.

'A people

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'A people celebrated in antiquity judged their kings after their death, scrupulously examined their actions, weighed their virtues and defects, and arrogated, if I may so express myself, the right which seems to belong to posterity, of passing sentence on them. The tomb places a barrier between the judge and the person about to be judged. There, hatred, prejudice, resentment, and envy are extinguished, while time draws aside the veil which hides the truth.

'The Swedish people, accustomed to see great and virtuous kings on the throne, have adopted a practice more consonant to the feelings of their heart, and more worthy of them. Assembled near the tomb of their kings, they bear with them the recollection of all the benefits and tender regards which they received from them during their reign.

'It is now for the seventh time that the States are assembled in the temple, to accompany the ashes of their magnanimous and revered monarchs to this tomb, which receives into its bosom the best and mildest of princes. By this title, who does not recognize king Adolphus Frederic?'

This prince died February 12, 1771, devolving on his son the splendor of royalty, and the cares of empire. On the 25th of June, in the same year, GUSTAVUS opened the diet with a speech which must certainly have been pleasing to his subjects. After having adverted in a most pathetic manner to the loss which the people and his own children had sustained, in the death of his royal parent, the young monarch proceeds:

'The love of their subjects is the first recompence of good kings; the tears which you shed this day are the most glorious monument which you could raise to his memory; and they are to me a spur which animates me to the virtue of aspiring to deserve, after the example of a parent so sincerely regretted, your attachment and confidence, by clemency and goodness. ——

'Born and educated among you, I have learned from my tenderest years to love my country, to regard it as my greatest happiness to be a Swede, and to esteem it as my greatest glory to be the first citizen of a free state. All my wishes will be fulfilled, if the resolutions which you shall adopt contribute to the general felicity. To reign over a happy nation is the first object of my prayers; and the last point of my ambition is to govern a free and independent people. These, believe me, are not unmeaning words, foreign to the secret movements of my heart. They are truly the faithful expressions of that heart which burns with an ardent love for its country, which is too sincere not to be true to its promises, and which is too proud ever to break its engagements.

'I have seen many countries, I have endeavoured to make myself acquainted with their manners and government, and to understand the advantages and disadvantages of the situation of the people. I have found that it is not absolute power, nor luxury, nor magnificence, nor treasures amassed by economy, which constitute the happiness of subjects, but concord and public spirit.'—

Who

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Who can doubt the truth of this last remark; or who can avoid respecting a monarch who makes it, and lamenting that his reign should be so soon disturbed by troubles and faction? We cannot enter into the politics of Sweden, nor detail the subsequent speeches which relate to her internal animosities and divisions. If the members of their deliberative assemblies split on this rock, it was not from the want of their being warned of it by their patriotic king.—Let us turn to his thoughts on the liberty of the press:

'It appears to me, (says GUSTAVUS,) on attentively considering the subject, that the liberty of the press is not injurious in general, and that it cannot become dangerous but by the abuse of it, which sometimes is displayed.

'Abuses are the consequence of human frailty, which blends with the best institutions; and, if we must oppose those which are in themselves beneficial, through the fear of abuses which might be introduced, we should never establish any thing useful to the public.——

'In a disunited nation, divided by opinions, principles, and interests, as the Swedish nation has been, a subject cannot be always considered under the same aspect by different parties, or at least it will appear in a doubtful light.

'In England, the liberty of the press was prohibited when Charles I. lost his head on the scaffold, and when the fugitive James II. abandoned the throne of his ancestors to his ambitious son-in-law.—That people were legally in possession of this right at the end of the reign of William III. or at the commencement of that of the house of Hanover; a family who have occupied the throne with more glory and security than any of their predecessors. If Wilkes excited some seditious movements, we ought rather to attribute them to the imprudent notice which the government took of his writings, than to the momentary sensation which they produced, and which would have left no more durable impression than other writings of the same kind.

'It is by the liberty of the press that kings learn the truth, which is so carefully hidden from them, and often with too much success. Ministers there find the advantage of receiving sincere and merited praise, or the opportunity of explaining to the public the false interpretations which are given of their measures. By the same channel, in short, the nation can at one time enjoy the consolation of complaint, and at another be convinced that its murmurings are ill-founded.'

A better defence of the liberty of the press could not proceed from the pen of a subject.

The second volume contains three dramas, *viz. Gustavus Vasa*, a lyric tragedy in three acts; *Gustavus Adolphus* and *Ebba Brahe*, an heroic drama in three acts; and *Siri Brahe*, or *the Inquisitives*, in three acts. In these plays, we have proofs of an elegant mind, amusing itself by courting the muses, and employing its leisure for the purpose of improving

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proving the public taste. We trace also the same just and manly sentiments, which manifest themselves in the king's other writings. They are composed with the minutest attention to scenery and decoration; and to each piece is prefixed an historical explanation of the subject, by which the pleasure of the reader is considerably promoted. GUSTAVUS has endeavoured to make dramatic amusements contribute to the recollection of Swedish history, and the improvement of the Swedish language.—The first of the plays is calculated to rouse patriotic feelings, as it relates to the deliverance of Sweden from the Danish yoke by *Gustavus Vasa;* and if, for the purpose of stage effect, the royal dramatist has not rigidly followed historic facts, he has not far deviated from them. We admire the speech which he has put into the mouth of NORRBY, grand admiral of Denmark, when his king and commander CHRISTIERN II. orders him to assassinate CHRISTINE, a Swedish lady of rank, who had fallen into his hands:

'No, CHRISTIERN, this employment is not suited to me. I am a soldier, and not an executioner. I have learnt to obey you, but without shame, and without crime. Command me, and, if it be necessary, I will brave a thousand deaths; spare neither my property nor my life, for they belong to my king——my honour alone belongs to myself.'

This passage, dictated by a king, and applied to the duty of a soldier, is a testimony of some importance. It draws the line of obedience, even to a military chieftain; and it asserts that a soldier, because he is under absolute command, is not bound to sacrifice his honour.—As we approach so near to the end of this appendix, we have not room for farther extracts, which otherwise we should readily have offered to gratify the curiosity of our readers.

We cannot adduce a stronger proof of the generous and amiable mind of GUSTAVUS III. than the fact that, on his death-bed, he pardoned the conspirators against his life, and lamented that it was necessary to execute even the assassin.

The work is well translated into French, handsomely printed, and with the letter-press is given a portrait of GUSTAVUS III.; also three well engraved copper-plates, representing a scene in each play.

We wait with impatience for the Correspondence.

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ART. XIV. *Antiquités de la Grande Grèce*, &c. *i. e.* The Antiquities of Magna Græcia, now the Kingdom of Naples, engraved by *François Piranesi*, Member of the Academy of Stockholm, and formerly Minister from the Court of Sweden to the Court of Rome; after the original Designs and local Observations of the late celebrated Architect, Painter, Sculptor, and Engraver, the Chevalier JEAN-BAPTISTE PIRANESI, arranged and explained by ANTOINE-JOSEPH GUATTANI. Volume the First. Imperial Folio. Paris. 1805. Imported by De Boffe. Price 12l. 12s.

IT is well known that the part of Italy, which is now under the dominion of the king of Naples, was formerly called *Magna Græcia*, from its having been peopled by Grecian colonies. This district contains *Campania*, in which were the celebrated towns of Herculaneum and Pompeii, both of which were overwhelmed by cinders and lava in an eruption of Vesuvius in the year 79 A. D. After the lapse of 1600 years, they were fortunately discovered at the beginning of the last century; and from them many antiquities have been extracted, illustrative of the private life of the Romans. Great labour has been bestowed in removing the earth which obscures these cities; and a considerable number of the buildings of the latter have been restored to light, enabling us to form a tolerably accurate idea of the uses to which they were applied at the time when they were immerged in the volcanic mass.

The large and splendid volume now before us contains 35 plates (on paper measuring 39 inches by 27 nearly), which give views and plans of the city of Pompeii, as it remains at present, and which will serve to gratify the curiosity of those who have neither disposition nor ability to explore Italy in person. We have in plate 2, after the title, (which, perhaps, is considered as plate 1.) a plan drawn to scale, of the entrance of the city of Pompeii, with the surrounding buildings. 3. Geometrical sections made for the purpose of exhibiting the different aspects of the buildings represented in the preceding plate. 4. A view of the entrance of the city, with the buildings, which are to be seen without the gate. 5. View of the buildings taken from the entrance. 6. View of the interior, with the lateral porticos and buildings represented in the two preceding plates. 7. Sepulchral, and other inscriptions found near the gate, where are the remains of the sepulchre of Mamia, and which has this inscription in large Roman capitals on the plinth; *Mamiæ p. f. sacerdoti publicæ locus sepultur. datus Decurionum decreto.* 8. View of the street on entering under the gate, with the foot-pavements and shops. 9 and 10. Plans, elevations, and sections of the shop of a tavern-keeper,

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and of the Thermopolium, intended, like our coffee-house, for the sale of warm liquors. 11. Perspective of the Thermopolium, with its furniture and ornaments. 12. Perspective of an eating-house, with its utensils and ornaments. 13. View of all the shops, right and left of the street, taken opposite to the gate. 14 and 15. Plan and geometrical sections of a surgeon's house, with an *Atrium Tuscanum* of Vitruvius. 16. Interior view of the *Cavædium*, or court to the surgeon's house, as it is now seen. 17 and 18. Plan of the *Atrium Tuscanum*, with its mode of construction, and the explanation in detail, after the text of Vitruvius. 19 and 20. Plan and elevation of the surgeon's kitchen, and of the *impluvium*, or reservoir for rain water in the court. 21. Scenographic view of the same. 22 and 23. Different sections of the *atrium* and *impluvium*. 24. View of the two entrances of the tavern, having a sign which, by moderns, would be thought revolting to decency. 25 and 26. Different sections and elevations of the tavern, with its stoves. 27. View of the interior. 28. Nearly similar to the foregoing. 29 and 30. Plans and sections relative to the preceding tavern. 31. Interior view of the same tavern. 32. Perspective view of the same. 33. Perspective view of the *sterquilinium* belonging to this tavern; and, 34 and 35. contain a plan, elevation, and section, of the tomb of Mamia and its dependencies, with the restorations.

These plates are executed in a rough, but spirited style of engraving, resembling *Piranesi*'s views of Rome. At present, they come to us without any explanatory letter-press; but, in the prosecution of the work, we shall expect the editor's remarks and observations, illustrative of these important subjects of antiquity: which, if they have not escaped the effects of the element by which they were buried, have been kept free from the alterations which are made by successive generations of men. In course, they seem to annihilate a long succession of intervening ages, and to make us cotemporaries of the people who occupied Pompeii, when Vesuvius covered it by its destructive eruption. Here is a wide field for interesting research, and we hope that it will be sedulously prosecuted.—The present article merely announces the commencement of a superb undertaking.

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ART. XV. *Variantes de l'Homme des Champs*, &c.; *i. e.* Various Readings in the Poem intitled *L'Homme des Champs*, and additional Passages, by the Author. 8vo. pp. 40. Paris. 1805. London, De Boffe. 4s.

A NEW edition of this beautiful poem of the Abbé DE LILLE, which we introduced to our readers in Vol. xxxiii. N. S. p. 470. and Vol. xxxvi. p. 236. being lately published, the editors have very commendably printed the alterations and additions separately, to accommodate those who possess the former, in various forms, and at different prices.

We have not at present a copy of the first impression, for the purpose of immediate consultation, and examination of the several new or corrected passages: nor, indeed, would such a duty be demanded of us. Suffice it to observe that, though several of the instances are very short, many are of considerable length. In particular, the termination of the 4th canto is now for the first time given intire in a state acknowleged by the author. The stanzas are affectingly descriptive of the miseries which France has witnessed during the Revolution; and the poet then endeavours to console his readers, by reminding them that one day these horrors will be only "as a tale that is told," and that a melancholy pleasure will even be derived from relating to their children, in declining years, the tragic spectacles which they formerly beheld, or the calamities which they themselves endured. We quote the opening of the scene:

'P. 145. *à la suite du seizième vers et jusqu'à la fin.*

'Mais, hélas, que nos temps, nos destins sont divers!
Sur l'autel de Cérès quand tu portas tes vers
La douce agriculture avoit repris ses charmes,
Les beaux arts renaissoient, Mars déposoit ses armes;
Thémis rétablissoit ses autels renversés;
Le pouvoir rassembloit ses faisceaux dispersés,
Et, réparant ses maux dans une paix profonde,
Rome enfin respiroit sur le trône du monde:
Et nous, infortunés que proscrivent les dieux,
L'orageux avenir se noircit à nos yeux.
La France, malheureuse au milieu de sa gloire,
Mêle un cri de détresse à ses chants de victoire:
Près d'elle sont assis, sur son char inhumain,
D'un côté le triomphe, et de l'autre la faim;
Et quand le monde entier est ébranlé par elle,
Elle-même en ressent la secousse cruelle.
Auprès de son trophée on creuse son cercueil:
Ses succès sont un piége, et ses fêtes un deuil;

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Et la guerre étrangère, et la guerre intestine,
De ma triste patrie achèvent la ruine.
Tel s'abîme un vaisseau battu des flots grondans :
Le vent siffle au dehors, le feu court au dedans.
Où sont ses arts, ses ports et ses îles fécondes ?
Son sang a des deux mers décoloré les ondes ;
Deux mondes à l'envi s'enivrent de fureurs.
Levant trop tard au ciel ses yeux mouillés de pleurs,
L'humanité tremblante à ses malheurs succombe :
L'enfance est sans berceau, la vieillesse sans tombe.
Le besoin frappe en vain au seuil de l'amitié :
Hélas ! l'excès des maux a détruit la pitié.
Quel amas de complots, de vengeances, de crimes !
Que d'illustres proscrits ! quelles grandes victimes !
Tu meurs, ô Lamvignon ! toi dont l'austère voix
Plaida cent fois la cause et du peuple et des lois.
Tu meurs avec ta fille, et sa fille avec elle ;
Chacune de ces morts rend ta mort plus cruelle :
Trois générations en un jour ont péri.
Et toi que j'aimois tant, toi dont je fus chéri,
Dont le cœur fut si bon, l'esprit si plein de charmes,
Pour qui mes tristes yeux ont épuisé leurs larmes ;
*O Thiars * ! tu n'es plus ! mais du moins avant toi*
Ton amie † avoit fui de ce séjour d'effroi.
D'incroyables douleurs terminèrent sa vie ;
Par la main des bourreaux la tienne fut ravie :
Mais l'amitié vous pleure, et doute de vous deux
Qui fut le plus aimable et le plus malheureux.
' Vous qui leur survivez, déplorables familles,
Partez, n'attendez pas que vos fils, que vos filles,
Traînés sur l'échafaud, ou frappés dans vos bras,
De leur père, en mourant, avancent le trépas :
Attendez que le ciel ait apaisé l'orage ;
Alors, rentrés au port et rendus au rivage,
Tranquilles, vous vivrez où vivoient vos ayeux.'

The concluding passages now stand thus :

' Cependant, revenus d'un exil rigoureux,
Oubliez, il est temps, ces tableaux douloureux ;
De vos champs, de vos bois, réparez les ravages.
Et toi, qui m'appris l'art d'orner les paysages,

---

* ' *M. de Thiars, lieutenant-général des armées, commandant en Provence et puis en Bretagne, arraché des bras de son digne ami, M. de Clermont Gallerande, pour aller à l'échafaud. Un de ses amis les plus estimés conserve de lui une lettre écrite au moment où il marchoit à la mort, pleine de la fermeté la plus héroïque, et de l'amitié la plus tendre pour l'amie dont j'ai fait mention dans ces vers, et dont il ignoroit la mort.* (Note de l'auteur.)'

' † *Madame de Serrant.*'

Muse,

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Muse, viens effacer ces vestiges de deuil!
Que des touffes de rose embrassent ce cercueil.
Le long de ces remparts, autour de ces murailles,
Qu'a noircis de ses feux le démon des batailles,
Courez, tendres lilas, courez jasmins fleuris;
De vos jeunes rameaux égayez ces débris.
Que la vigne en rampant gagne ces colonnades,
Monte à ces chapiteaux et pende à ces arcades,
Et qu'un voile de fruits, de verdure et de fleurs,
Cache ces noirs témoins de nos longues fureurs.
Hélas, et que n'en peut la sanglante mémoire,
Ainsi que de ces murs, s'effacer de l'histoire!
'Et vous peuples des champs, vous de qui tant de fois
Nous portâmes la plainte aux oreilles des rois;
Parlez: qu'avez-vous fait de vos vertus antiques?
D'où vient que j'aperçois sous vos chaumes rustiques
Ce faste, ces débris de châteaux dépouillés?
Pourquoi ces ornemens dont vos murs sont souillés?
Quel fruit vous revient-il de ces pompes cruelles?
Ah! les remords chez vous sont entrés avec elles:
Et ce lit fastueux, dépouille des palais,
Ne vaut pas l'humble couche où vous dormiez en paix.
'Ainsi je célébrois, d'une voix libre et pure,
L'innocence, les champs, les arts et la nature.
Veuillent les dieux sourire à mes agrestes sons!
Et moi, puisse-je encor, pour prix de mes leçons,
Compter quelques printemps, et dans les champs que j'aime
Vivre pour mes amis, mes livres et moi-même!'

Much do we lament that the present aspect of affairs seems to give no promise, that the struggles and the sufferings of the poet's afflicted country will soon be described merely as of past times!

A Frontispiece represents the author returning to his native plains, surrounded by the afflicted inhabitants, and exclaiming with emotion,

'Témoins de mes beaux jours, de mes premiers désirs,
Beaux lieux! qu'avez vous fait de mes premiers plaisirs?'

Chant IV.

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